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ABSTRACT

Recognizing that classrooms are complex settings in which effective teaching cannot be the end result of merely following a list of rules and regulations, this monograph provides practicing reading teachers with appropriate information based on current teacher-effectiveness research so that they can be informed by the best of current thinking to make the most intelligent and useful decisions about their classroom reading programs. Chapters in the monograph are: (1) "The Effective Reading Teacher"; (2) "Effective Classroom Management for Reading"; (3) "Teachers' Expectations"; (4) "Establishing an Effective Environment for Reading"; (5) "Effective Reading Development: The Role of the Home"; (6) "Effective Reading Instruction and the Special Learner"; and (7) "Effective Reading Teachers: They DO Make a Difference." Each chapter concludes with a section entitled "You Become Involved" in which statements or questions are posed to help teachers apply the information to their own situation. Seventeen notes are included; a 97-item annotated bibliography of recent research in the ERIC database on teacher effectiveness is attached. (RS)

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It is a great thing to start life with a  
number of really good books  
which are your very own.

Sir Arthur Conan Doyle  
Through the Magic Door

Read, mark, learn,  
and inwardly digest.

The Book of  
Common Prayer

ED337261

# Teacher Effectiveness and Reading Instruction

*The Gates*  
Joseph Addison

*Reading is to the mind what exercise is to the  
body. As by the one, health is preserved,  
strengthened, and invigorated; by the other,  
virtue (which is the health of the mind) is kept  
alive, cherished, and confirmed.*

Richard D. Robinson  
University of Missouri-Columbia

*There is no frigate like a book  
To take us lands away  
To teach us couriers like a page  
Of prancing poetry.*

**ERIC** Clearinghouse on Reading  
and Communication Skills

**EDINFO PRESS**

*...man.  
Roger Bacon  
of Study of Studies*

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# **Teacher Effectiveness and Reading Instruction**

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**University of Missouri–Columbia**



**Clearinghouse on Reading  
and Communication Skills**

**EDINFO PRESS**

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ERIC (an acronym for Educational Resources Information Center) is a national network of 16 clearinghouses, each of which is responsible for building the ERIC database by identifying and abstracting various educational resources, including research reports, curriculum guides, conference papers, journal articles, and government reports. The Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS) collects educational information specifically related to reading, English, journalism, speech, and theater at all levels. ERIC/RCS also covers interdisciplinary areas, such as media studies, reading and writing technology, mass communication, language arts, critical thinking, literature, and many aspects of literacy.

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**To Ira Aaron and A. Sterl Artley who, by their actions  
in the classroom, clearly showed that they understood  
what it means to be an effective teacher.**

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## **Table of Contents**

Preface .....	1
Chapter One:	
The Effective Reading Teacher .....	7
Chapter Two:	
Effective Classroom Management for Reading .....	13
Chapter Three:	
Teachers' Expectations .....	25
Chapter Four:	
Establishing an Effective Environment for Reading .....	31
Chapter Five:	
Effective Reading Development: The Role of the Home ..	37
Chapter Six:	
Effective Reading Instruction and the Special Learner ....	47
Chapter Seven:	
Effective Reading Teachers: They DO Make a Difference ...	55
Notes .....	61
Research on Teacher Effectiveness .....	63

*One characteristic that distinguishes effective classrooms from ineffective ones is the teacher's commitment to the belief that all children can learn to read.*

*—Becoming a Nation of Readers:  
The Report of the Commission on Reading (1984)*

## **PREFACE**

Almost all of us have been in classrooms with teachers whom we remember with affection and warmth. She may have been that kindergarten or first-grade teacher who welcomed us into the world of learning with open arms and an open heart—she seemed to have a cure for every ill and every problem, or the fourth-grade teacher at whose knee we first entered the magical kingdom of reading with its wide wonders and varied interests may be the one we remember. The middle-school teacher whose classroom was one which overflowed with fascinating displays and projects is another candidate. The teacher who first challenged us to think and speak for ourselves and who respected our opinions and ideas, moved us forward in ways more important than almost anyone else. Perhaps the one who made the difference was the high-school teacher who, when we were uncertain about where we were in life and where we were headed, gave us not only the class content but also the personal attention and care that has affected us for the rest of our lives. Some of us late-bloomers do not blossom until college, so it may have been a crusty university professor who put an edge on our intellects. Most of us have memories of that favorite teacher to whom we will be grateful for the rest of our lives.

I remember my first-grade teacher who wanted us to like reading so much that, rather than put library books on the shelves, she scattered them around on the floor in one corner of the room. She did this so we could see the interesting covers better, which might make us want to read the books. To make the classroom atmosphere even more enjoyable, she brought in some old bathtubs. These porcelain boats full of kids made unique and wonderful places to read, and we loved them. Every day my most unforgettable teacher read to us a poem, a



part of a story, or some book or article that she herself was enjoying. Never was there a thought of a test or a book report on what she read to us—only an opportunity to relax and enjoy the pure pleasure of language. My first-grade teacher made reading not only a school subject but also a part of our lives forever. I have never forgotten her.

***It is a great thing to start life with a small number of really good books which are your very own.***

—Sir Arthur Conan Doyle  
*Through the Magic Door* (1907)

The following assorted comments illustrate the influence of teachers on other people who became lifelong readers:

*My first-grade teacher was the best teacher I ever had. I could hardly wait to get to school so we could start to read. Often, when I am reading, even today as an adult, I think back to her reading class.*



*I had some good and bad reading teachers. Some made us do a book report every time we read. I hated this assignment so much that I often wrote the book reports without reading the story! Other teachers helped me to like reading. They let us pick what we liked best in each book we read. One teacher even respected our opinions so much that she allowed us to say how we really felt about what we were reading.*



*Even though reading was very hard, I never was made to feel stupid and put in the low reading group. My second-grade teacher did not even have groups, so we never knew who should be in the high or low groups for reading. It was in this grade that I first began to like to read. Once I got going, reading became easier, and I have loved to read all the rest of my life.*

What makes each of these effective teachers so different from others? Was it simply that they were warm, understanding, and had a concern for their students, or did they possess other characteristics that cause us to remember them even

today? This basic question—What qualities describe the effective teacher?—has long been a paramount question for educators.

Teachers from the earliest times have been concerned about their teaching. Richard Mulcaster, an English schoolmaster, who wrote *Qualities of the Master; Deficiencies of the Profession* in 1581, listed what he considered to be the characteristics of an effective teacher.

*Besides his manners and behaviour which require testimony and assurance, besides his skill in exercising and training of the body, he must be able to teach the three learned tongues, the Latin, the Greek, the Hebrew....He must be able to understand his writer, to master false prints, unskilful dictionaries, simple conjectures of some smattering writers concerning the matter of his train....There are required in him besides these...hardness to take pains, constancy to continue and not to shrink from his trade, discretion to judge of circumstances, light-someness to delight in the success of his labour, heartiness to encourage a forward youth, regard to think each child an Alexander, courteous lowliness in himself as if he were the meanest, though he were known to be the best.<sup>1</sup>*

From Socrates' time to Mulcaster's Elizabethan England, to our own day, teachers ponder those qualities that distinguish the more effective from the less effective teacher.

In the ongoing quest to identify those teaching skills that seem to characterize the good teacher, much of the work, until the most recent past, can be simply categorized as superficial. Emphasis has been placed primarily on what was conceived theoretically to be effective teaching rather than on what was actually and effectively taking place during classroom instruction. Experts presented teachers with lists of DOs and DON'Ts—items that they thought were the qualities of good teaching. The experts told the teachers that if they followed these suggestions, they would automatically become effective teachers. Typical of these lists of what constituted a good teacher is the following excerpt taken from a contract written in the early part of the 20th century. Women teachers agreed to the following list of acceptable behaviors, both in-class and out-of-class:

1. Not to get married.
2. Not to keep company with men.
3. To be home between the hours of 8:00 p.m. and 6:00 a.m., unless in attendance at a school function.

4. Not to loiter downtown in ice-cream stores.
5. Not to leave town at any time without the permission of the chairman of the Board of Trustees.
6. Not to smoke cigarettes.
7. Not to drink beer, wine, or whiskey.
8. Not to ride in a carriage or automobile with any man except her brother or father.
9. Not to dress in bright colors.
10. Not to dye her hair.
11. To wear at least two petticoats.
12. Not to wear dresses more than two inches above the ankles.
13. To keep the schoolroom clean
  - a. To sweep the classroom floor at least once daily.
  - b. To scrub the classroom floor at least once weekly with hot water and soap.
  - c. To clean the blackboard at least once daily.
  - d. To start the fire at 7:00 so the room will be warm at 8:00 a.m. when the children arrive.
14. Not to use face powder, mascara, or paint the lips.

Actual classroom experience has shown that simplistic lists of teacher behaviors that "we like to think" are related to improving instructional practice have not worked to any remarkable degree of success. How can we, then, define, measure, and instill the qualities that constitute effective teaching?

Of all the curriculum areas related to instructional effectiveness, the one that has probably received the most attention from teachers has been reading. Because reading is the generally accepted foundation for success in education, and thus is of paramount importance, teachers naturally are concerned about doing a high-quality teaching job with this subject. Despite all the attention paid to teaching and reading, many questions remain open and debatable in reading education. Important issues such as the teacher's role in reading instruction, the appropriate use of materials, classroom management strategies, and reading assessment, all are still unresolved.

My purpose in writing this monograph is to provide practicing teachers with appropriate information based on current teacher-effectiveness research so that they can be informed by the best of current thinking in order to make the most intelligent and useful decisions about their classroom reading programs. I have attempted to bring together relevant information about teacher effectiveness as it relates specifically to the teaching of reading. This small volume is not, however, a cook book full of recipes for stirring up a more effective reading program. Especially is it not a menu for academic fast food! Historically, teacher-effectiveness research has oftentimes been used as a quick fix for a particular problem. One clear lesson to be learned from the research is that classrooms are complex settings in which effective teaching cannot be the end result of merely following a list of rules and regulations.

If you are a reading teacher, I have written this book to help you reflect on the implications of reading education scholarship for the sake of your own classroom reading program. To further this process, each chapter concludes with a section titled "You Become Involved." The statements or questions in these trailers are posed to help you apply the information presented in each chapter to your own individual, unique teaching situation.

## **YOU BECOME INVOLVED**

Before you read this monograph about effective teaching and reading instruction, I invite you to evaluate your current thinking about what it takes to be an effective reading teacher. Consider the following:

1. List and define what you think are the characteristics of an effective classroom teacher. What are your reasons for these choices?
2. List and define what you think are the characteristics of an effective teacher of reading. Why do you make these choices?
3. Reflect on your own experiences when you were learning to read. What positive images do you have of the instructional behavior of your reading teachers? What negative images do you remember? What do you believe caused your teachers to act in the ways they did?

*Teachers whose classes make good learning gains....not only believe that their students can learn; they also believe they (the teachers) are capable of teaching successfully.*

—Thomas Good & Jere Brophy  
*School and Classroom Organization (1989)*

## **Chapter One**

# **THE EFFECTIVE READING TEACHER**

“What is a good teacher?” is a simple question with a complex and difficult answer. Simple, because most people easily remember at least one special teacher they had as students in school. Not only do they recall these favorite teachers from the past but also they often can describe the characteristics that made these teachers good at what they did. The complex part is in knowing whether these identified characteristics are typical of most effective teachers; and if so, the difficult part is in appropriating these characteristics for oneself so as to become a better classroom instructor.

The *First Grade Reading Studies* were an important series of research projects done primarily to compare various approaches to the teaching of reading. One major conclusion of the authors was that the critical factor in determining access was not primarily the instructional method but, rather, the role of the teacher. Researchers G.L. Bond and R. Dykstra made the following suggestions:

*Future research might well center on teacher and learning situation characteristics rather than method and materials. The tremendous range among classrooms within any method points out the importance of elements in the learning situation over and above the methods employed. To improve reading instruction it is necessary to train better teachers of reading rather than to expect a panacea in the form of materials.<sup>2</sup>*

Reading researchers in recent years have accepted Bond and Dykstra's challenge, and they have increasingly concerned themselves with identifying those characteristics that seem to be most closely associated with effective instruction.<sup>3</sup>

The results of this new research undergird the three following principles of classroom teaching and student learning that are starting points of what I have to say in this book.

The first principle is the critical role that the teacher plays in the instructional process. Method and materials are important, but it is what the teacher *does* that makes the difference. If you have been teaching reading for very long, you have had the dubious opportunity of being exposed to a product or approach that was “going to end all your problems in reading.” Remember some of these supposed innovations?—ITA, words in color, tachistoscopes, boxed learning kits, the talking typewriter, basal readers, *et cetera, et cetera, et cetera*. Each was designed either to replace the reading teacher or to make his/her role less important in the teaching of reading. Like the dinosaur and the dodo bird, most of them have passed into historical oblivion. In the final analysis, “the effective teacher of reading is the most important aspect of any reading program.”

***There is no frigate like a book  
To take us lands away  
Nor any coursers like a page  
Of prancing poetry***

Emily Dickinson  
*Poems* (1873)

The second principle is that differences in teacher characteristics influence student outcomes. Teachers do differ from one another in their styles of classroom instruction, and these differences directly affect their students' performance. Very simply stated, some teachers are more effective than other teachers. The key question then becomes, “Can we identify those teaching characteristics that seem to be most closely associated with desired teacher performance and student success?”

The third principle is a belief that teachers can learn to become better at what they do. Despite the feeling among many that teaching is an inborn “art form” and that this “God-given talent” cannot be improved, most teacher effectiveness researchers believe otherwise.

Current research indicates strategies and practices that characterize those teachers who seem to be doing a better job as opposed to those who are less effective. Awareness of this research and knowledge of these principles, concepts,

and abilities that characterize effective classroom teachers, puts the tools of information in the hands of teachers who are willing to improve their style.

## **TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH: BACKGROUND**

When asked, people often describe their favorite teachers as being warm, understanding, caring, and with a good sense of humor. These teachers are individuals who display an interest in their students' personal and academic lives. Former students frequently use words such as "friend," "confidant," or "trusted" when remembering their best teacher.

Historically, teacher effectiveness has been measured in this personal manner. Lists of teacher characteristics, both desirable and undesirable, were developed, based on what was perceived as being typical of the effective teacher. They included terms such as the following:

warm	understanding
friendly	aloof
responsible	slipshod
stimulating	imaginative
dull	exciting <sup>4</sup>

These lists were sometimes given to students for them to evaluate the supposed effectiveness of their teachers.

For the following reasons, however, this approach to measuring teacher effectiveness did not work with any degree of success. What was being measured was the students' perception of effectiveness rather than the teacher's actual classroom performance. Students ranked teachers on the basis of what the students thought the characteristics of an effective teacher ought to be, not what was actually taking place in the classroom. This "moral evaluation"—coupled frequently with a lack of information on how students had actually performed—limited the results of this approach to assessing the teachers' personalities, not their effectiveness. A. Sterl Artley debunked this approach to describing the effective teacher in these words:

*[These checklists] described for us a kind of invisible, ghost-like person who, in fact, may not exist. She (he) has been found to be cooperative, sympathetic, poised. She is well-groomed, healthy, imaginative, and cooperative. She gets along with her co-workers and her principal, and she gets her reports in on time. As one of my friends said, "She has the same characteristics we expect from a good bar girl."<sup>5</sup>*



A second approach to describing the effective reading teacher was to compare different methods of reading instruction. The typical conclusion of this approach was that if one instructional method seemed to produce better results than did another, it must be because the reader was being taught by more effective teachers. Even though this approach to teacher assessment is fairly common, it does very little to describe specifically what effective teachers are doing in their reading classrooms.

In contrast to previous research on reading and teacher effectiveness, today's studies take a very different approach. Examples of this research include works by Duffy,<sup>6</sup> Book,<sup>7</sup> and Bain.<sup>8</sup> Instead of purporting to predetermine what might be assumed to be characteristics of an effective teacher, researchers now are observing what is actually taking place in classrooms. These observations are made without prior commitment to a list or an ideology that sets out what is considered to be "effective" or "less effective" teaching practices.

The new research involves process-product studies that focus on the link between teacher behaviors and student outcomes. Observations of preselected teacher strategies, such as the number and type of reading comprehension questions asked during a reading lesson, are recorded over a period of time. These and other measurable teacher traits are then noted and compared to student achievement and growth as readers, which are measured by a standardized reading test. Extensive work in reading education and other academic areas using process-product results has demonstrated this approach to be consistent and reliable.

A related way of assessing effectiveness in reading classrooms is for trained observers to record what teachers do during their reading instruction. This descriptive approach differs from the process-product method in that no prior decisions are made as to what is to be observed. The results of these classroom observations can often be very revealing about teacher practices during reading instruction. Typical observations include reports of teachers who did the following:

...talked for 59 minutes in an hour's reading class and called it a discussion.

...asked only factual recall questions and felt that they had accurately determined the students' critical opinions about a topic from their reading.

...grouped students according to every conceivable standard other than how well they could read. Examples include parents' income, racial identity, types of clothes worn by the student, and even one teacher who grouped her second graders for reading according to how well they could skip!



...believed that comprehension was the most important aspect of reading and yet provided little or no specific instruction on how to read for understanding.

...indicated that students should have primary responsibility for selection of what they would read even though they required their classes to read only a teacher-predetermined list of reading materials.

...supported the idea of individualization in their reading classes even though all students in their reading classes followed the same instructional program, including the completion of every page in the workbook.

...told their students that reading was a lifelong process, yet never showed by example that they themselves enjoyed reading.

### **TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH: SOME CAUTIONS**

Teacher effectiveness research has changed since 1980 from the earlier, impressionistic approach that provided little specific knowledge about what teachers do. Today's empirical approach is having a major influence on what teachers believe about themselves as classroom instructors. This change is important because of the improved quality of the research that has prompted this new empiricism, and because a reliable measure of effectiveness is so important to teachers.

Brophy noted that the findings from teacher effectiveness research have a special direct relevance to teachers' practical concerns. Unlike most other educational research (e.g., national assessments of educational progress, surveys of teachers' attitudes and practices, studies of child development and learning), findings concerning teacher effectiveness link student outcomes to teacher behaviors.<sup>9</sup> As this information becomes better integrated and organized around key theoretical concepts, it begins to constitute a knowledge base that we can use to undergird professional educational practice. If this knowledge base continues to develop, and is appropriately exploited through effective professional education, it has the potential to empower teachers by providing them with definitive information to draw upon when making professional decisions about their instructional habits.

Teachers need to be aware that the results of teacher effectiveness research can be either empowering or limiting, depending upon how the information is perceived. In one sense, knowledge about actual effectiveness can be limiting to teachers who believe that they must parrot in a mechanical way the conclusions of reputed research findings, or that they must redefine their personal style in a slavish way according to some supposed new norm. On the other hand, these

results can be empowering in that the information gained from teacher effectiveness research gives the teacher the knowledge needed to make appropriate decisions based on a well-established framework of empirical evidence.

***Read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest.***

*The Book of Common Prayer (1662)*

When considering the results of teacher effectiveness research, teachers need to be aware that neither teacher-effects data nor any other scientific data can serve directly as prescription guidelines for practice. In the final analysis, it is the classroom teacher herself or himself who must decide what is appropriate for the individual learning situation. No application of a predescribed set of guidelines can fit every teacher of all students in every local learning situation.

Teacher effectiveness research is not a panacea for all ills afflicting the teaching of reading. Rather, it is to be welcomed as a new tonic for teachers to imbibe. This refreshing information turns the many curricular and instructional choices that must be made each day into new opportunities for greater effectiveness. A teacher who has become more knowledgeable as a result of teacher-effectiveness research will necessarily be better prepared to be more effective in the classroom.

## **YOU BECOME INVOLVED**

React to the following statements related to effective teaching and reading instruction:

1. Some teachers find the results of teacher effectiveness research to be limiting and threatening because they believe that they must do exactly what this or that researcher suggests. What do you think might be the most profitable use of this information in your own reading instruction?
2. Reminisce about several effective reading teachers you have had in the past. What were some of the teaching behaviors that made them outstanding teachers?
3. It has been said that effective teachers are "born, not made," and that nothing can be done to make a teacher more effective. What is your reaction to this statement?

*Effective teachers are also good classroom managers.*

C. Evertson  
*Talks to Teachers (1987)*

## **Chapter Two**

# **EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT FOR READING**

For many reading teachers the topic of classroom management is a controversial one. The mere mention of classroom management brings to mind reading programs that are heavily influenced by role and scope sequences, skills-training systems, or computer management programs. This technocratic definition of classroom management is not what I have in mind. Rather, the focus of this discussion is teacher behaviors that enhance effective learning during reading instruction. Examples of good classroom management activities include maximizing students' time on task, effectively organizing reading-group activities, and monitoring student progress.

## **ORGANIZATION FOR READING INSTRUCTION**

Until relatively recently, little was known about the effects that various teacher behaviors had on student outcomes. This ignorance was particularly burdensome for the organization and management of instruction. For reading teachers, organizational schemes, such as the directed reading lesson, have been used successfully for a number of years; yet the success of this widely used pattern for reading was based more on classroom experience than on a solid research base.

Today, the situation has changed significantly. The increasing evidence is that effective teachers are also good classroom managers. They tend, for instance, to maximize the time that students spend in worthwhile academic activities, such as reading books, as opposed to doing workbook pages and worksheets. Effective teacher-managers also often follow an organizational plan that, while allowing freedom for individual differences, is based on a planned instructional format or

outline. Barak Rosenshine and Robert Stevens reviewed the existing research on effective classroom managers, and they developed a direct instructional model that includes the following teacher behaviors:

1. Begin with a short review of previous, prerequisite learning.
2. Provide a short statement of goals for the current lesson.
3. Present new material in small steps, with student practice after each step.
4. Give clear and detailed instructions and explanations.
5. Provide a high level of active practice for all students.
6. Ask a large number of questions, check for student understanding, and obtain responses from all students.
7. Guide students during initial practice.
8. Provide systematic feedback and corrections.
9. Provide explicit instruction and practice for seatwork exercises and, where necessary, monitor students during seatwork.<sup>10</sup>

Similar teacher effectiveness research with small-group reading instruction indicates that good classroom managers tend to meet the following needs:

1. Reading groups need to be organized for efficient, sustained focus on the content.
2. All students need to be not merely attentive but also actively involved in the lesson.
3. Questions and tasks need to be easy enough to allow the lesson to move along at a brisk pace, and the students need to experience consistent success.
4. Students need to receive frequent opportunities to read and respond to questions, and they need clear feedback about the correctness of their performance.
5. Skills need to overlap, with new ones gradually being phased in, while old ones are being mastered.
6. Although instruction takes place in the group setting, each student needs to be monitored and provided with individualized instruction, feedback, and opportunities to practice.<sup>11</sup>

These points related to small-group instruction are important because in most elementary classrooms a large percentage of reading instruction is carried on using this grouping pattern.

If you were to ask adults what they most remembered about their early reading instruction, the most vivid memories almost invariably would involve some aspect of small-group instruction. Unfortunately, most of these memories are of negative experiences—of reading orally in front of the teacher and other children each day—negative, if for no other reason than the social problems many students experienced in one of the traditional three reading circles found in many elementary reading programs. Even the names given to the different groups caused trouble. In one situation I know, the teacher named her reading groups The Fruits, The Vegetables, and The Nuts! In another classroom in descending order the readers were known as The Red Birds, The Blue Birds, and The Buzzards! Even when the names are less colorful and less derogatory, how long does it take the students parceled into reading groups to figure out that they are in the high, the middle, or the low group?

As you review the six points related to small-group reading instruction, think about how the following common reading instructional practices violates these principles.

Once formed, reading group membership does not change throughout the remaining school year.

Often, students are placed in reading groups based on a variety of criteria other than reading ability.

Group activities involve mostly reading in a round-robin format that places stress on being able to say the words correctly, but with little emphasis given to reading comprehension.

Comprehension questions ask for factual recall instead of critical and interpretive understanding.

Students who mispronounce words during oral reading must stop and correct their errors before they can continue reading orally.

Teachers' responses to comprehension questions are mostly confirmation of factual recall answers as opposed to comments on individuals' insights about what they have read.

Success or failure is measured by the teacher on the ability of the students "to say the words correctly" and to complete their workbook pages.

The primary goal of the reading class is to get through the textbook and workbook material, as opposed to encouraging students to learn to see reading as a pleasurable, informative lifelong experience.

You and I both might be tempted to dismiss these practices as not applying to our reading classes! And yet, classroom observations of numerous teachers, many of whom think of themselves as "good teachers," supports the view that the reading practices just listed are quite common.

## **PEER TUTORS**

One solution to many of these problems related to grouping for reading is through the use of peer tutors. We are all familiar with the idea that "the teacher learns more than does the student." Teaching teaches the teacher. When fellow students teach their peers the learning effect is often dramatic for both the teacher and the student.

I recall a third-grade boy named John who found almost all aspects of his experiences in my classroom to be unpleasant at best. He refused to participate in any of the class activities no matter what they happened to be. He especially disliked reading, whether in the textbook or in any other reading materials for that matter. In addition, his social interactions with his fellow students were very constrained because of his continual discipline problems. His prospects for correcting these difficulties seemed painfully limited until an unimagined opportunity surprised John. A non-English-speaking student joined the class and became John's chance to help someone else learn.

In what later looked like a brilliant move on my part, but at the same time was made in a sense of desperation, I asked John if he would be willing to help the new student with her reading and writing activities. With an almost magical transformation, John quickly assumed the responsibility for working with his new "pupil." I remember after the first day asking John what he had taught. With almost a look of disdain he replied, "Nothing but the important stuff—how to say McDonald's, washroom, lunch, gym, and recess!"

In the next few months there was great progress shown in language development not only on the part of the new student but also on John's part. After all, as he said, "I gotta know the words if I want to teach them!" Not only was there significant improvement in John's academic work but also a positive change in all

of the other aspects of his classroom behavior as well. I believe that these changes were the direct result of John's opportunity to become a peer teacher. He began to see matters from the standpoint of the teacher, and he realized how his own behavior was disruptive during instruction.

Teachers might want to consider the following points before they begin a program of peer tutoring in their reading classes:

- Effective peer tutoring does not "just happen"; it is a result of careful planning on the part of the classroom teacher.
- Students to be selected as peer tutors tend to do best if they have shown a willingness in other situations to want to help their fellow students. In the case of John, while he did not have many friends, he did have a strong desire to want to help the new student in the classroom.
- Work that the tutor can teach with relatively little preparation is most successful. This is particularly important at the beginning of the peer tutoring because you do not want to have the tutor embarrassed on account of a lack of knowledge.
- Reading-related activities that have been shown to be effective include the selecting and sharing of new library books, joint writing projects, playing games together, and the opportunity to develop a shared experience of learning new material with a trusted friend.
- You, as the teacher, need to monitor carefully what is being taught and how the relationship is developing between the tutor and the student.

Peer tutoring in reading is an exciting and interesting activity that has shown itself in many classrooms to be an effective avenue for grouping.<sup>12</sup>

## **CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PRACTICES**

Jacob Kounin identified several factors that were evident in the classroom management practices of more effective teachers.<sup>13</sup> While applicable to any subject area, these variables can be applied with good effects to reading education.

*Withitness* describes the degree to which the teacher is aware of, or is monitoring, what is taking place in the classroom. For instance, when the teacher prevents minor misbehavior before it has a chance to become a serious classroom discipline problem, then she's with it. When the teacher carefully monitors the types of comprehension responses coming from the students during reading class,



then he's with it. Teachers who recognize and acknowledge divergent ideas and comments, individual insights, and budding personal feelings in their reading students, are with it. "With-it" teachers are on top of the dynamics of their reading classes, and they respond with appropriate teacher behaviors.

We have all been in reading classes during which a student made a comment that seems at first not to be even remotely related to the topic being discussed. I recently was visiting in a first-grade classroom in which a discussion of the word "tattoo" was taking place. While most of the students' responses fit the traditional definition, one of the boys suddenly said, "A tattoo is a drum-and-bugle band presentation!" A typical reaction at this point from many teachers would have been to reprimand the student for not paying attention. Instead, the teacher, unfamiliar with that definition of the word, displayed "withitness" and asked the student why he had said what he did. The young man quickly explained that he and his family had recently returned from Edinburgh, Scotland, where they had visited the Military Tattoo. His definition was correct, yet it took a teacher who went beyond the familiar to make sense of this student's informed, but unexpected, response. This reading teacher was "with it."

*Overlapping* relates to the ability of the teacher to deal with more than one classroom event at a time. A teacher comfortable with overlapping can work with a small reading group and, at the same time, monitor the seat activities of the other students in the class. This teacher can oversee reading group activities that include a wide variety of possible combinations at any one time, ranging from special-interest groups that come together for a particular project, to the lone student working on an individual reading activity.

We have all known teachers who seemed to have "eyes in the back of their heads." No matter what was going on in the classroom, they knew about each student's activities. The teacher who can easily move around the classroom, answering individual questions related to seatwork and yet also be aware of what is going on with a special-interest group in the back of the room, is good at overlapping.

*Smoothness* describes the teacher who easily moves from one activity to another. Smooth is the reading teacher who effortlessly blends readiness activities into the actual reading of the text material. Enrichment or additional reading is not introduced abruptly as a last-minute add-on but rather is eased into the picture as a coherent and useful part of the total reading lesson.



I observed a Ms. Jones, a second-grade teacher, who is a perfect example of someone who easily moves from one part of her reading lesson to another. The reading group had just finished reading a short selection on Columbus and his discovery of America. As the class was encountering new vocabulary, Ms. Jones had a student quickly check the definition in a dictionary that was on a table next to the reading circle. Questions about specific geographical locations were discussed in relation to maps that Ms. Jones has given to each student. During the discussion about how Columbus arrived in the New World, Ms. Jones referred to a movie that the class had watched earlier in the day about transportation, noting especially the description of tall-masted sailing ships. She asked if anyone had visited any islands in the Caribbean, the site of Columbus' first landfall. "What was it like where Columbus landed?" she asked. At the close of the reading lesson, Ms. Jones asked her students to write in their journals what they thought it might have been like to travel with Columbus. Ms. Jones was definitely a smoothie of a reading teacher.

*Momentum* refers to the normal progress of a lesson, and teacher behavior that keeps the momentum-wise teacher from getting in the way. The teacher who continually interrupts students' oral reading to note insignificant errors, or asks an excessive number of irrelevant comprehension questions, is not allowing the momentum of the lesson to carry the flow of learning.

*Alerting and accountability* describe the teacher who not only prepares students for what they are to read but also holds them responsible, following the reading, for the information they have taken in. The effective teacher of reading is aware of the necessity of setting appropriate goals for each lesson. The alert teacher makes students understand the objectives of the lesson. The teacher who requires accountability lets each student know that he or she will be expected to remember and be able to discuss the material.

***Reading is to the mind what exercise is to the body. As by the one, health is preserved, strengthened, and invigorated: by the other, virtue (which is the health of the mind) is kept alive, cherished, and confirmed.***

Joseph Addison  
*The Tatler* (1709)

## **GETTING STARTED WITH A GOOD BEGINNING**

Teacher effectiveness research has shown increasingly the importance of teacher behaviors at the beginning of the school year. For many teachers, this period at the start of school was considered to be merely a time to review, briefly the previous year's work and to establish quickly the new rules and regulations for the coming year. Classroom observations have consistently indicated, however, that the smooth beginning of school is frequently indicative of an effective teacher. The easy transition into the year's activities is not automatic, no matter how seemingly effortless it may appear. In reality, ease of transition is the result of careful planning and preparation by the teacher.

Research on the start of school activities has a great deal to say to teachers of reading. The reading teacher who is adequately prepared for the school year will tend to do a more effective job of starting up classroom instruction. The following guidelines describe the effective reading teacher at the beginning of the school year:

1. The fast starter prepares the classroom. The physical features of the classroom, such as the organization of the library, seating arrangements, and free reading areas, are in place before the start of school.
2. The effective starter thoroughly establishes appropriate rules and regulations. This teacher gives special attention to the establishment of appropriate guidelines for classroom activity in general, and specifically for reading. Students' questions about the implementation of these procedures are discussed in a manner that allows input from everyone, and clarifies misunderstandings. Typical questions might include use of the library during class, times for free reading, and appropriate interruptions of the teacher when working with other students. The effective teacher takes time to demonstrate these rules and regulations during reading instruction. Researchers observe that effective reading teachers tend to *teach* these rules and regulations only at the beginning of the year, whereas less effective teachers tend to teach, reteach, and review them frequently, often on almost a daily basis.
3. The teacher with foresight discusses the consequences of behavior. Classroom observation has shown that teachers are often inconsistent in their application of established rules and regulations. The effective reading teacher and the students need to be clear on appropriate and inappropriate behavior; the students need to know ahead of time the possible consequences of their actions, and the teacher needs to follow through.

4. The effective reading teacher understands and teaches the goals of the reading program. In many classrooms, neither the teacher nor the students know the purposes of reading instruction. Classes are filled with uncoordinated activities that might be individually worthwhile but are an incoherent jumble taken together. Students and teachers alike merely go through the motions with little or no understanding of how their busyness is related to a successful reading program.

Effective reading teachers know both the general and the specific goals of the classroom reading program, and they take special measures to teach in an explicit way these objectives to the students. Students and teacher alike know why the goals are set before them, and why and how they themselves are to pursue the goals.

***Reading maketh a full man.***

Roger Bacon  
*Essay of Studies (1625)*

Teacher effectiveness research has shown that all teachers, including reading teachers, can learn to be more effective in their classroom management. The results of these efforts by the teacher have a number of positive outcomes. Students taught by an effective reading teacher improve in their reading ability and therefore enjoy reading more than those who have a less effective teacher. Discipline problems are fewer in the classroom that has a teacher who is an effective manager. Frequently, a better managed class has more time for real reading than does a poorly managed class. Thus, the reading teacher who takes the time to prepare for instruction carefully, and who knows and uses effective classroom management strategies, tends to produce more interested, eager readers.

## **YOU BECOME INVOLVED**

In this chapter we have discussed the importance of being an effective classroom manager. Evaluate your role as the instructional leader in your classroom's reading program by answering for yourself the following questions:

1. Based on what you have read in this chapter, what do you think are your areas of greatest effectiveness as a classroom manager?

2. Read the following descriptions which are based on actual observation of two classroom reading programs, and then reflect on these questions: What do you see as being major differences in the ways in which the teachers manage their reading instruction? In which of the classrooms do you think the students will learn more? Which factors cause you to make this choice?

### **CLASSROOM I**

The second-grade classroom was neat and orderly with all the reading textbooks stacked next to the teacher's desk. Library books were organized according to the author's last name, and as a point of pride, all were arranged in perfect order each day by the teacher. The students sat in rows facing the teacher's desk which was at the front of the room.

Reading was scheduled from 8:30 to 10:30 a.m. with each of the three reading groups having 30 minutes for instruction. The groups were divided according to reading ability as measured by a standardized reading test which had been given in the first grade. The first 30 minutes of the reading period was used by the teacher to assign seatwork for the entire class, which consisted almost entirely of teacher-made skill sheets and workbook pages. The remaining time during these first 30 minutes of reading instruction was then used to check the previous day's work. The emphasis on these activities was on neatness. The materials were passed out to the students one row at a time so that the teacher could staple them together in the proper order.

On this day, the reading lesson for each of the three groups consisted of identifying the long vowel sounds in a list of vocabulary words taken from the previous day's reading and from oral round-robin reading. The teacher noted the importance of paying attention to the perfect pronunciation of each word so that the rest of the class knew that they were doing real reading. No specific work was done on comprehension other than what was included in the workbook being used for quiet seatwork. The teacher was careful to be sure that each reading group had exactly 30 minutes for reading, even though this often resulted in having to terminate a discussion by one reading group just as it got started. The teacher commented that they could start again on the same topic tomorrow.

At the end of the reading session, the teacher took time to compliment the class on how well they had done because of their good study habits. It was nice when they had worked quietly at their desks throughout the reading

period. They had also finished a large number of worksheets which clearly showed they had a good attitude toward reading.

## **CLASSROOM II**

The third-grade classroom was crowded and cluttered with a number of study and activity centers, the most prominent being a library table which was covered with many different books and other reading materials. Several students were working on a science project while in other parts of the room various groups were completing a social-studies unit, painting a large mural, and having a spirited discussion on a story they had just read.

The teacher moved from one group to another asking questions and making suggestions about ways in which the specific projects could be developed. When the teacher reached the group who was discussing the literature story, the students all wanted to know what was the right answer to what they had been discussing. The teacher, rather than giving an opinion, asked the students for their feelings and thoughts, and then the teacher suggested additional books that could be read before the students decided on what they thought was right. Several students were given permission to go to the school's library to find some more material on the discussion topic.

The teacher at this point asked six students from the various activity centers to meet at the back of the room to discuss a story in their literature books. The teacher quickly summarized the content of the story, and then asked the group what they liked best or least about what they had read. All the students were given an opportunity to present their feelings and opinions, including reading appropriate selections from the story in support of what they were saying. At the end of the discussion, the teacher asked the members of the group to take ten minutes to write a short statement in their journals about their current conclusions regarding the topic they had been discussing.

They were to be prepared for the next day, when the teacher would ask this group's members to lead the entire class in discussion, presenting the various positions which could be taken on the topic.

3. "The organized reading teacher is the most effective teacher." How do you feel about that statement? Can reading teachers be over-organized or not organized enough in their reading instruction? In your own teaching of reading, where do you think you fall between these two extremes?

4. If effective reading teachers seem to have fewer discipline problems, is it because they do not give students the opportunity to “be themselves” and in fact are actually strong disciplinarians?

*Classroom teachers make instructional decisions in reading based on what they expect from their students.*

Richard Allington  
*Effective Teaching of Reading: Research and Practice (1986)*

## **Chapter Three**

# **TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS**

If you were to ask ordinary teachers how they interact with students during reading instruction, you no doubt would hear statements such as the following:

"I treat all of my students in the same way—each is an individual; each is respected for his or her differences."

"I encourage all students to express their own unique feelings and ideas about what we have read in class."

"Reading assignments are given based on each individual's interest and learning objectives."

"I believe in flexible grouping for reading instruction, based on each student's needs."

"I use oral reading with all of my students, when appropriate, to enhance meaning."

"The reading of literature and other appropriate material by each student is a primary goal of my reading program."

These statements enshrine worthy goals and objectives for any reading program. Nevertheless, observations of teachers in action have consistently indicated that what most teachers do is different from what they say. Teachers, whether they are aware of it or not, are not even-handed in the way they treat their students. Instructional variation does exist, and is reflected in teacher behaviors that differ with different ability groups. These differences in instruction and teacher behavior are not necessarily related to a student's academic abilities; rather, they often reflect teacher beliefs about students' socio-economic back-



grounds, racial identities, their parents' occupations, and other matters that have nothing at all to do with students' reading ability.

How do you *feel* about the following statements:

**"Students from poor homes have much greater difficulty learning to read."**

**"Students in the high reading group tend to have opinions and ideas more worth sharing with the class than do students in the low reading group."**

**"I believe students in the low reading group would find going to the school library a very difficult assignment, so I ask them to use only the library in our classroom."**

**"Workbook pages are designed to help all students learn from the textbook better, but I use this material mostly with the slower readers because it works better for the slow ones."**

Many teachers would disagree with some, or all, of these statements, yet classroom observations continue to show that, despite what teachers say, many of these instructional practices are being followed during standard reading instruction.

The following teacher behaviors that undermine and defeat students' interests in reading, have been observed in classroom reading programs:

- High-ability students get more opportunity to read complete books, whereas low-ability students are asked to read partial selections such as those found in workbooks and worksheets.
- Low-ability students are interrupted more frequently during oral reading, and most often at the point of difficulty, whereas high-ability students are asked to read around the unknown word and allowed to derive meaning from the context.
- Students with low reading ability are asked to complete more seatwork, both in terms of amount and instructional time, than are high-ability students. For lows, this generally involves the completion of workbook pages and worksheets rather than reading from literature or reference materials.
- Teachers ask reading comprehension questions of high-ability students that encourage critical and evaluative responses whereas low-ability students are most often expected to answer factual recall items.



- **Less time is allowed for low-ability students to respond to reading comprehension questions, whereas high-ability students are expected to take additional time for reflection and thought.**
- **Praise for correct responses to what has been read is more frequently given to high-ability students than to low-ability students.**
- **Most teachers demand less work, and of significantly poorer quality, from low-ability students than from high-ability students.**
- **Most teachers allow more time for class discussion with high-ability students than they do with low-ability students.**
- **Perhaps most discouraging of all, teachers tend to smile and be friendlier during reading instruction with high-ability students than they do with those of low-ability.**

These are sobering thoughts for any teacher. If these behaviors are accurate descriptions of what is taking place in classrooms, what does this say about my own teaching of reading? Thomas Good and Jere Brophy described the interaction between teacher expectations and student behaviors in the classroom.<sup>14</sup> This process involves the following steps:

1. The teacher expects specific behavior and achievement from particular students.
2. Because of these varied expectations, the teacher behaves differently toward different students.
3. This treatment communicates to students which behaviors and what level of achievement the teacher expects from them, thereby affecting their self-concepts, achievement motivation, and levels of aspiration.
4. If this teacher behavior is consistent over time, and if the students do not resist or change it in some way, it will shape the students' achievement and behavior. Students for whom teachers have high expectations will be led to achieve at high levels, whereas the students for whom teachers have low expectations, will decline.
5. With time, students' achievement and behavior will conform more and more closely to the behavior expected of them by their teacher.

Succinctly stated, students' classroom behavior is usually a reflection of what teachers expect it to be. The questions that teachers must ask themselves, then,

are these: "What do I expect my students' reading behavior to be?" and "What am I doing in my classroom reading program either to enhance or retard my students' optimal reading behaviors?"

## **TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS AND READING INSTRUCTION**

Differences in teacher expectations are not in-and-of-themselves wrong. Students' reading instructional needs do differ for many reasons. To treat all students alike—though it may sound right—is not the answer. The effective reading teacher is aware of students' individual differences and will make appropriate adjustments as needed.

Teachers' expectations, however, often arise from their own unexamined assumptions and their own lack of awareness of predictable, but non-rational, responses. Unexamined assumptions are not based on sound educational practice, self-understanding, and humane treatment of the students. For some teachers, self-evaluation is a difficult undertaking; it can, nonetheless, be accomplished if one is willing to evaluate one's own teaching behaviors, assumptions, and expectations.

***My early and invincible love of reading...I would not exchange for the treasures of India.***

Edward Gibbon  
Memoirs (1796)

The following suggestions are ways to begin self-evaluation for classroom teachers who want to examine their expectations of student reading behaviors.

- Assess your use of classroom instructional time for reading activities. Are certain ability groups given "make-work" projects just to keep them busy while others are encouraged to do "real" reading? Keep a time log or schedule of your students' daily reading activities for a week. Observe which reading group does what kinds of work and for how long. Note any disparities among groups in your use of their time or the quality of assignments that you give them.
- Review the types of reading comprehension questions that you ask during a reading lesson. Do you usually ask certain kinds of questions of only one group of students? Do you tend to ask higher-order, critical, and interpretive

questions of the high-ability group, whereas you tend to ask lower-order, factual recall, simpler questions of the low-ability group? Are your expectations of the types of answers based on what you think is typical of a particular ability group or on the individual student's strengths and weaknesses?

- Focus on your teacher behavior during oral reading. Do you tend to interrupt low-ability students more frequently than you do high-ability students? What are your reasons for asking questions during oral reading? Is it to enhance comprehension of what has been read or just to correct pronunciation? Do your low-ability readers ever seem embarrassed when you stop them while reading to correct their pronunciation or some other matter secondary to comprehension?
- Evaluate your seatwork assignments in relation to their usefulness in the total reading program. Are these activities truly valuable, or are they more in the category of "busy work"? Do you make differential assignments of seatwork for different ability groups, i.e. extra skill sheets and workbook pages for the low-ability groups? Do you do this to "keep them quiet," or for some other reason?
- Note how you praise successful reading experiences with different students. Does your praise differ according to ability groups? If so, how does it differ?
- Consider the kinds and quality of work that you expect from your reading students. Do your expectations vary according to the individual abilities of the students or are they based on generalities associated with ability groups?

## **YOU BECOME INVOLVED**

We have discussed the importance of teacher expectations and their effect on a classroom reading program. The following suggestions are intended to help you self-evaluate your own expectations of your students' reading.

1. Consider your definition of reading. Write down what you believe reading to be. List the most important aspects of effective reading. What you consider to be critical in the reading process is what you will stress in your classroom teaching.
2. If the technology is available to you, make either an audio or video tape of yourself teaching reading to your classes. Now be brave! Grit your teeth, and review yourself in action. Can you identify personal teacher behaviors in your

reading instruction that reflect either effective or less-than-effective expectations?

3. Invite a teacher friend to observe you as a reading instructor. Listen with an open mind to what your associate reflects to you concerning your teaching. Before the observation takes place, you might suggest certain areas about which you are particularly concerned, such as questioning techniques, interactions with different ability groups, or reading assignments.

*What your students think and feel about reading depends on the environment in which they learn to read.*

Gerald Duffy & Laura Roehler  
*Improving Classroom Reading Instruction (1989)*

## **Chapter Four**

# **ESTABLISHING AN EFFECTIVE ENVIRONMENT FOR READING**

The ultimate goal of all reading instruction is to help students become proficient readers who enjoy their reading and find it worthwhile. For many, however, reading is divided into two kinds: "school reading" and "fun reading." This unhappy dichotomy, too often true, makes the school subject the unfortunate twin instead of a valuable experience with lifelong merit and joy for each individual. We have all heard the comment from adult friends, "I just hate to read a book because I always feel that I have to write a book report on it!" Alas, they are speaking not in jest but out of feelings remembered from the dreary reading of school days. **Nothing is more important for you and me to do in our reading classes than to develop an atmosphere that encourages the love of reading.**

***In anything fit to be called by the name of reading, the process itself should be absorbing and voluptuous; we should gloat over a book, be rapt clean out of ourselves.***

Robert Louis Stevenson  
"A Gossip on Romance" (1882)

One of the most important steps a teacher can take to make the environment effective for reading is to model good reading behaviors in the classroom. Many students in today's schools have had little or no experience of actually

seeing an adult whom they respect read. This is one more reason for students' thinking of reading as a boring school-related activity with little real-world application in the lives they prefer to lead outside the classroom. Reading, as effective teachers of reading clearly understand, is much more than merely knowing the mechanics of phonics and decoding. The classroom of an effective reading teacher is an environment in which both the students and the teacher engage in "real reading." Teacher and students alike gain meaning from books and other materials, for a variety of useful and pleasurable purposes.

Help your students see reading as valuable and important by modeling reading before them.

1. Allow every opportunity for your students to share with you and with other students what they themselves are reading.

Most students have interests that extend far beyond the traditional materials used in reading classes. While you may have to exercise some editorial judgment about what is acceptable and not acceptable reading material in your classroom, it is far better to effect a wide open, uncensored atmosphere of "read anything, read everything." At the very least, students need more freedom of choice than is ordinarily given them by many teachers.

I have had students who wanted to read the racing form, comic books, supermarket tabloids, and car magazines. Others have wanted to read specialized books or magazines on their hobbies, favorite movie stars and sports heroes, and current topics in the news. While I am sure that these items were not listed in my reading curriculum guide, nor did they necessarily appear on my personal reading agenda, I allowed students some freedom in what they could read. Good taste in fine reading, like other desirable qualities, comes for many with increasing maturity. As reading teachers, our job is to keep them reading and growing, not to stop them from reading what they want to read.

2. Share portions of books that you have enjoyed, both by telling your students about the books and by reading especially enjoyable passages aloud.

You probably have far more influence as a teacher on your students' attitudes towards reading than you realize. While they may not acknowledge your impact openly, your example, your tastes, and your own eagerness to read influence them. Show them by example that reading is an important part of your life and not just a "school subject." Most young people are herd animals, swayed by and persuaded by example. By watching you read, their attitudes will almost always change for the better about reading.

As an adult, you can read aloud material that, even though written at a level too difficult for your young students, may be nonetheless interesting to them. I had a first-grade teacher who read to us every day—sometimes a poem, part of a story she was reading for herself, or an interesting newspaper article. I remember very little from first grade other than what the teacher read to us. Thanks to that first-grade teacher, I enjoyed my first exposure to Beatrix Potter, A.A. Milne, E.B. White, and Mark Twain. For me, this was one of the most interesting and exciting parts of each school day. It started me on a lifetime of reading.

3. Set aside class time for students to go to the library for books related to class projects but also for recreational reading as well.

For many of us, a library is one of the most exciting and interesting places we can be. I have at times felt regret on going into a library that I was not able to read every book on the shelves. Unfortunately, this excitement about reading and libraries is not felt by everyone. Some students view the library as being useful only for completing class assignments. Others see a library as being the location of such alien things as the fearsome card catalog and those intimidating ranks of dry and heavy reference materials, and staffed by hissing book dragons who continually tell them to shhh! This negative image of the library can be changed best when you take the time to allow all students the opportunity to learn about the library's many services. Do not hesitate to emphasize the library as the school's best source of books for recreational reading.

4. Flood your classroom with all types of reading material, and encourage its use throughout the school day.

Teachers often lament the lack of materials available for classroom reading, citing a lack of funds as the main reason for this problem. Here are some suggestions on how you can add reading materials to your classroom's library at little or no cost:

- Ask parents and other people in the community to donate used books appropriate to the age of your students, magazines, and other reading materials for your use in your classroom.
- Have the students in class write to companies asking for free catalogue information on various products.
- Ask discount stores, and even publishers, to donate to your school, or sell at reduced rates, paperbacks and other reading material that go unsold.



- Write to children's book publishers and tell them that you are interested in purchasing at discount any damaged materials they may have for sale.
  - Request parents to watch at garage and auction sales for appropriate children's books and magazines.
  - Ask the local newspaper whether they would provide on a regular basis copies of the paper for use in your classroom. Yesterday's paper is just fine for reading, and is probably free.
  - Subscribe to the magazine *Freebies*, and order away to your student-readers' hearts' content.
  - Organize your students and their parents to help with a book drive at the local library, having reached an understanding with the librarian beforehand that some of the library loot will come to your classroom.
5. Develop each lesson so that your students derive a sense of importance in their lives through experiences with reading.

Reading for many students is strictly an abstract school-related experience that has little or no relevance in their lives, outside the schoolhouse. You must use every opportunity to bring the outside world of reading into the classroom, and to extend the collective, reading mind of your class into the outside world. Here are some examples of how you can make reading a real-life experience:

Provide every opportunity for daily use of newspapers, magazines, and library books in classroom instruction not related to designated reading time. Students see these materials not as school-related but as reading opportunities from the outside world. When students perceive reading materials as being adult-oriented, they are more motivated to read them.

Encourage students to compare their opinions with other viewpoints from various sources. For example, television programs that are reviewed in the newspaper and/or movie reviews can be contrasted to fellow students' written reactions to these movies. Writers write to be read. By inviting students to read one another's writings, you not only avail the student writer a style of publication but also provide an especially interesting source of reading matter for the other students. Similarly, students who are interested in sports can compare their opinions about a game or sports star that they have watched on television with newspaper accounts of that story.



Encourage students to read critically commercial advertising found in magazines and newspapers. Locate specific ads that refer to the same or similar products. How do the ads differ in what they say about a product or service? What information is not included? Are the ads misleading? Adults are exposed to a barrage of advertising every day; young students on their way to adulthood need to be taught to be critical about what they read. Older students are among America's most free-spending consumers. They need to read up on that CD player before they buy it. Introduce them to *Consumer Reports* and other consumer-oriented periodicals.

Bring appropriate, occupational reading into the classroom. Have students interview people in different jobs about what they read each day. How important is reading to being successful in a particular type of work? It may come as a surprise to your students that in today's marketplace, very few jobs, if any, do not require some type of reading.<sup>15</sup>

Effective reading teachers believe that their students can become satisfied readers, and they do everything they can to project this positive image to their classes. In the positive instructional environment of an effective classroom, students feel that the teacher understands them as individuals, is supportive of their reading accomplishments, and is accepting of their reading disappointments.

One strategy that conveys approval of student behavior is teacher praise. To be effective, praise must be both specific and credible. The reading teacher who persistently says "Well done!" or "That's a good job!" for any performance, quickly loses the students' respect for what is being said.

Make your praise effective by making your comments direct and honest:

- Specify the particulars of what is being praised.
- Be credible by showing your awareness of the real value of the student's accomplishment.
- Refer to the student's prior accomplishments as the context for the praise.
- Credit your student's effort and ability as the source of the accomplishment and thus deserving of praise.
- Reflect your own knowledge of the student's efforts in relation to the difficulty of the task and your student's ability.

Socialization of the reading process will be an important part of the effective class experience. If students are to think of reading as being more than "just

another school activity," they need to realize that reading enhances their lives both inside and outside the classroom. Reading not only gives them individual pleasure and information but also contributes to social acceptance, better communication with their peers, and the power to do what they want to do.

## **You Become Involved**

The establishment of an effective learning atmosphere in a classroom is largely your responsibility as the teacher. Carefully consider the following questions as you evaluate the learning atmosphere in your reading classroom.

1. If it is so important for a teacher to act as a role model who actually reads in the classroom, why do so few teachers model reading behavior before their students? When asked this question, teachers often reply, "I don't have the time," or "It is not important," or "This activity is not in my teacher's manual!"

What changes do you need to make in your classroom to find the time, make it important, and otherwise make it possible for you to model effective reading behaviors for your students?

2. Think about how you praise students. Which students usually receive your support? Do some individuals, for whatever reasons, receive more praise and support from you? If so, why do you notice them and ignore the others? When you praise them, what do you say?
3. Visualize your classroom environment for reading. Having read this section on establishing an effective environment for reading, what would you like to change? Brainstorm with yourself, and write down these ideal changes as they occur to you. Then go back over your completed list of bright ideas and reflect on the possible uses of each one. Consider how these changes might enhance your classroom environment for reading.

*Reading begins in the home. To a greater or lesser degree, depending upon the home, children acquire knowledge before coming to school that lays the foundation for reading.*

*Becoming A Nation of Readers (1965)*

## **Chapter Five**

# **EFFECTIVE READING DEVELOPMENT: THE ROLE OF THE HOME**

Under ideal circumstances, the school and the home would have common goals and expectations for a student's reading. Parents would have provided appropriate background experiences prior to the beginning of formal education, and they would be supportive of their children's current classroom reading program. Teachers would be aware of the concerns of parents, and they would adjust the school's curriculum to meet these needs. Problems with reading would easily be resolved through good communication between the school and the home.

Unfortunately, this ideal is far from the reality of many communities in which two-way communication between home and school is poor, at best, and possibly non-existent. While it is often easy for us as educators to identify problems with the home, we need also to realize that schools are not without blame. We may not be able to change parents' attitudes about the schools, but we can change our own schoolteachers' minds and actions about the homes. Teachers have not always been as sensitive to problems in the home as they might have been. If, for instance, a young child comes from a home that has little or no reading material, then let it become the responsibility of the classroom teacher to supply what is lacking. Even though schools are not restaurants, the child who comes to school hungry may have to be fed if we expect any learning to take place. Neither are schools bookstores or newsstands, but most schools are *libraries*. The student who has no place to read at home, or who works a full-time job after school, may need free time at school to be able to read. These situations are not ideal, but they do reflect reality. The effective reading teachers realize that they must aggressively take the initiative and make reading possible in spite of extraneous problems.

The following suggestions are based on actions reported to have helped with home/school problems:

1. Learn as much as you can about your students' home situation.

The more you know about existing conditions in the homes of your students, the better you are able to adjust your reading curriculum to their individual needs. The best way to learn about what is happening at home for a student is through personal interaction with the student. Class discussions, journal writing, and individual interactions are all avenues for you to learn more about what is happening in a student's life outside of school. The following specifics are matters of importance as you plan your classroom reading activities:

- the health of the student: A sickly child may lack the energy to read; motor-perception and visual problems are especially critical. An appallingly high number of students have been labeled "LD" when all that was wrong with them was that they needed their vision corrected.<sup>16</sup>
- relations with parents and siblings: A child who lacks a peaceful homelife may need to find a reading haven.
- general financial condition of the student's family: If a serious lack of funds at home keeps students from being able to afford the reading material that they desire, you may be able to help your students find alternative ways of getting what they want.
- working situation of the parents: Do both parents work? Is one, or are both parents, unemployed?
- after-school situation: Is the student a "latchkey child" who goes home to an empty house?
- the attitudes of the parents: Do your student's parents regard teachers, schools, education, and reading positively, or otherwise? Are the parents your allies or "the enemy"?

How can you best cope with whatever situation actually exists? Any information that you learn about your students' private lives should be treated in a professional and confidential manner, with the same respect that you would expect of others with access to personal information about yourself.

2. Be willing to communicate with your students' parents on all aspects of your reading program, explaining activities and new developments.

Literate parents are "experts" in reading simply because they already know how to read. They are, therefore, your ally, and they deserve to be kept informed. Chances are great that teaching methods for reading have changed since your students' parents were in school. "if I learned to read using this familiar method or the well-known materials, why are you doing something different with my child?" is a frequent challenge from parents. "We used phonics, workbooks, and vocabulary lists, and I learned to read OK!" When they first hear about new ideas and methods being used by the reading teacher, parents may be suspicious.

Teachers often hear this lament from parents: "If we could only go back to the basics, we would no longer have any problems with children learning to read." The suggestion to go back to a better time is often limited to education and reading. You seldom have people wanting to return to the basics in housing or transportation, and certainly not in medicine (bring out the leeches!).

In one sense, the concern about returning to what is perceived as having been better reading methods and materials is positive. It reflects a basic understanding on the part of parents as to the fundamental importance that reading plays in education. What this parental concern should say to us as teachers is that we need to do a better job of explaining the new methods and materials we are using to teach reading.

If we are encouraging our emergently literate students to freewrite and use invented spelling as a baby step in composition, we need to explain to parents that, yes, we will also teach correct spelling and sentence form when the time comes. If a broad literature base is important in our reading program, we may need to explain why we do not use the basal reader in the same manner as in the past. We encourage our students to select their own reading materials not because we are uninterested in what they are choosing to read, but, quite to the contrary, because we are vitally concerned that they exercise and grow in their freedom of literary choices. We are fostering in students the opportunity to develop their own taste and to express their own individuality in what they choose to read.

3. Talk with parents about their student's progress in reading, including both problem areas and achievements. Many parents hear from school only when something goes wrong. If you report the good things that your students do in class, the parents will be glad to hear from you; and then when you do have to talk over the problems, they will be more receptive.
4. Explain in specific terms how parents can help their children become better readers. It is not enough to simply say: "Encourage your child to love to

read!" You need to be prepared to explain to parents how they can encourage reading at home. See the list of home reading activities at the end of this chapter.

5. Discuss the goals for your classroom reading program with parents. Tell them why you think these are important for their child. When goals for the whole class seem to be different from goals that a given parent desires for his or her child, be willing to discuss this issue, and be willing to tailor your reading program to individual needs. Teachers can learn from parents, just as parents can learn from teachers. A critical aspect of the successful working together of the school and the home is the cooperation of the teacher.
6. Encourage parents to be partners in all that you do in the classroom. Even though most teachers would agree in principle that parents are valuable as partners in classroom reading activities, this powerful resource is seldom used. The following are some examples of how effective reading teachers have used parents in their classrooms:

Develop a group of volunteers, both mothers and fathers, who are willing to come and spend regular times reading favorite books and other materials to your entire class or to selected groups of students. Books that are favorites either of the students or (where appropriate) of the volunteer moms and dads may be read. This activity allows the teacher to work with individuals while the oral reading is taking place.

Encourage parents to share with the students their special knowledge about their jobs, personal background, experiences, and hobbies. Suggest to the parents that they bring along some examples of appropriate books and other written materials that are related to what they talk about to the class. The school librarian can be very helpful at this point in making suggestions on current materials.

Ask parents to help you prepare materials to be used in various ways in your reading classes. This might include bulletin boards, unit activities, artistic handouts, and other supplemental reading materials. In almost every group of parents you will find some with artistic skills who would be happy to share their talents to enliven many different kinds of reading activities with your class, if only you, the teacher, would ask them.

A critical aspect of the successful working together of the home and the school is the cooperation of the parents. The first teachers we all had were our parents. Our parents' influence affects us profoundly for the rest of our lives.



Parents need to be given specific suggestions as to how they can help with reading in their homes. In most cases, those parents were your students' reading teachers long before you were.

Teachers have often hesitated to make full use of parents under the false assumption that they were not certified teachers and did not know the latest reading techniques and materials! How unfortunate for all concerned that this ineffective attitude has lasted as long as it has among teachers. Parents, by the very nature of their personal involvement with their children, have—in most cases—insights that the classroom teacher does not possess. The importance of parents in helping with reading development cannot be overestimated.

When the school and the home work together any ordinary academic problem can be solved. The effective teacher is aware of this valuable linkage that needs to be established and nourished if the student is to succeed.

## **YOU BECOME INVOLVED**

Acknowledging the importance of the home/school relationship is easy. Much more difficult is to develop and carry through with specific measures that strengthen the ties between the home and the school. The following suggestions might be useful to you in forging stronger links in the home/school connection:

1. Evaluate your communications with your students' homes, vis-à-vis reading instruction. Effective teachers have found the following approaches to be helpful:

Telephone the homes of all of your students at least at the beginning and the end of each term. This is a minimal way to get to know the parents of your students in an informal manner and to share ideas, concerns, and successes related to your students' individual progress in reading. When needed and appropriate, additional telephone calls can be quite effective.

Begin a classroom newsletter that is sent home to parents on a regular basis. In the newsletter, discuss what is taking place in the academic program but also include samples of individual students' work.

Encourage parents to call you when they have questions and concerns about their children's progress in reading or in other school subjects. You might suggest the times of the day or evening—say one or two days of the week—when you would appreciate their calling.



2. Encourage your P.T.A. to have programs that explain new developments taking place in your reading instruction. These programs can be staged either by classroom teachers or by the language-arts coordinator in your school district.
3. Invite parents to visit your room to observe what is taking place in your reading instruction. Ask them to schedule these times ahead of time. You may want to suggest which days would be more convenient for their visiting.
4. Send suggestions home for parents to help their children prepare for future class assignments in reading. These could include topics to be studied, library books to be read, and ideas that family members might discuss together.
5. Think about your role and responsibility as an effective reading teacher when, despite everything you may have done, there is still little if any cooperation coming from the home. You need to evaluate not only the practical implications of this development, such as providing appropriate reading materials, but also your personal attitudes and feelings towards these students. For some students, you as the teacher will probably have to take on much of the responsibility of the home and the parents. Are you willing to shoulder the load in these situations?

***If you wish to be a good reader, read.***

Epictetus  
*Discourse* (ca. 115)

## **General Activities**

Specific Suggestions that Parents Have Made on Helping Their Children Become Better Readers<sup>17</sup>

1. I let my children see me enjoy reading from a wide variety of materials such as newspapers, books, and magazines.
2. I see that each child has a personal bookshelf or space for storing his or her reading materials. (This can be as simple as a board on two bricks or a cardboard box.)
3. I try to arrange some time each day when I read to my children, even though they are now able to read themselves. (Select materials that interest them but that are written at a level above their reading ability.)

4. I do not compare the progress of my child with that of any other child. Each individual has unique abilities and interests that must be respected.
5. I show an interest in my children's reading, helping them to select appropriate reading material.
6. I make a special effort to praise a child when he or she shows improvement, no matter how small the gain. (We all strive to succeed when we know our progress will be approved.)
7. I check my child's comprehension of the story by asking questions following his or her reading. Several types of questions might be asked, such as the following:

I ask fact questions:

What were the characters' names?

Where did the story take place?

How many animals were in the story?

I ask sequence questions:

What came first, second, etc. in the story?

What followed after this or that event in the reading?

I ask critical and evaluative questions:

Did you like the story? Why or why not?

What do you think happened after the story ended?

Would you have liked to be one of the characters in the story? Why?

8. I encourage my children to ask questions about the reading they are doing.
9. If possible, I provide a dictionary written at the young reader's reading level, and I encourage its use.
10. I try to schedule each child's activities throughout the day to include some reading.
11. Because each child's health is of prime importance for success in reading (especially vision and hearing), I schedule physical examinations at regular periods.

12. I am aware of any symptoms that may indicate a significant change in current health.
13. I am aware of the television programs watched by my children, and I encourage scheduled time for reading.
14. I try to relate television to reading, such as suggesting the newspaper as a good source of current events.
15. I purchase a newspaper daily, and I encourage my children to read what interests them each day.
16. Books and magazines are an important part of my gift-giving to each child.
17. When traveling, I point out opportunities for reading such as highway signs, maps, menus, etc.
18. I relate the importance of reading to the real world of work and life so that my children will see this connection in the life of an adult role model.
19. I provide at least one general source for checking facts, such as an inexpensive encyclopedia or almanac.
20. I encourage the love of reading as one of the prime goals of all our home reading activities.

### **Library Experiences**

21. I have a library card.
22. As soon as each child becomes old enough to be eligible, I get a library card for each of my children.
23. I take my children to the library whenever possible.
24. I make each trip to the library an exciting adventure of discovery.
25. I make sure that special parts of the library, such as the card catalog and the reference materials, are clearly explained.
26. All of the children are encouraged to select and borrow at least one book every time we go to the library.
27. The materials obtained at the library are an important part of our home reading activities.
28. I do not try to impose my interests on book selection; rather, I respect the choices that my children make.

## **Prereading Activities**

29. I give my children every opportunity to express themselves, whether it be through talking, art activities, or play experiences.
30. I am a concerned and interested listener, showing my children that their feelings and interests are important to me.
31. I encourage playing word games related to reading. (These might include such simple activities as trying to think of rhyming words; words with the same beginning or ending sounds; and various vocabulary-expanding words to describe such occurrences as snow, an exciting sports event, a trip to the zoo.)
32. I provide the opportunity for my children to visit a variety of places in the community. These might include the zoo, train station, airport, fire station.
33. We play informal games that encourage the child to see differences and likenesses in size, shape, color, etc. in objects in our home.
34. I place special emphasis on reading to my children at the beginning stage in reading so that they can find out as early as possible about the joy of reading.
35. I never use reading-related activities as a means for punishment.
36. I provide writing material, whether it is a small magnetic blackboard or just a pencil and paper, for experience in writing letters and words encountered in the child's reading.
37. I am careful that the amount of reading time never exceeds the child's interest span.

## **School Activities**

38. I show an active interest in what my children tell me about their school activities.
39. I know my children's teachers and encourage good communication between home and school.
40. When asked to visit at school, I am willing to go and cooperate with the teachers.
41. I am willing to provide the school with needed information about my children, including health, social, and psychological data that may help my children's teachers do a better job of teaching reading.

42. I take an active part in the PTA programs of my children's schools.
43. I encourage the local school district to allocate sufficient funds for the purchase of library and related materials associated with the reading program.
44. I see that a scheduled time is provided each day for my children to read school-assigned material uninterrupted by television, the telephone, or other distractions.
45. I take an active interest in my children's efforts in reading, not expecting unrealistic progress.
46. I try to relate home reading activities to those that are taking place at school.
47. I see that my children receive sufficient rest so that they will be able to do their best in school each day.
48. I am knowledgeable about the grading practices in my children's school and—when in doubt—I am willing to contact my child's teacher for clarification.

*Children who are treated as if they are uneducable almost invariably become uneducable.*

Kenneth B. Clark (1965)  
*Dark Ghetto*

## **Chapter Six**

# **EFFECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION AND THE SPECIAL LEARNER**

Terms such as "special," "divergent," "normal," and "gifted" are words that are very difficult to define. In a general sense, every student is a special learner because each individual brings a unique set of experiences and characteristics to each new learning situation. Teachers know that these terms often bring to mind stereotypes that do not necessarily fit the individual student.

Several years ago I had the opportunity to work with a young man in our university's Child Study Clinic who had been referred for reading assessment because he was considered "slow," "remedial," and even "retarded." At the beginning of our work I had a few moments to get better acquainted with him in an informal discussion. During this conversation he casually mentioned that he had just finished working on his father's car. He had disassembled, cleaned, and then reassembled the car's carburetor that morning, and he very proudly added that it worked better than a new one. Even with my limited knowledge of automobiles and engines, it was easy to see that this young man was neither "slow" nor "remedial," and he was definitely not "retarded." In fact, as I got to know him better, I increasingly realized that he was an individual who had many talents and abilities. If I had believed the labels that had been hung on this young man without actually investigating their validity, I would have built a very false impression.

We have all worked with students who had divergent thinking and learning abilities. I remember the young man in my Chapter 1 reading class who, in one semester, did the following: printed hall passes and sold them to most of the school, got all the students to bring alarm clocks set for 10:00 A.M. and put them

in their lockers, and further organized the student body so that everyone checked out 10 books from the library before the librarian realized that most of the library was gone! It was this young man who innocently asked me if he could construct a totem pole for an Indian project and—when I agreed—had the telephone company deliver a telephone pole to the front yard of the school. He also, following a discussion in my reading class about the rights and privileges of every person, had most of the students sign a petition to fire the school cook! I might add that this last activity did not put me in high favor with the school principal. These are the kinds of students who challenge us as teachers far more than do the “average” students; these are the ones we remember as truly “special” learners.

The effective reading teacher recognizes these points of uniqueness, and plans instruction accordingly. As I use the term, the “special learner” is defined as being the individual who, while having many of the same attributes as other students, presents challenges to the reading teacher not often encountered in the typical classroom.

Here are a few examples:

Mary, a first-grade student who reads Ann Landers every day, wanted to know what Ann was talking about when she discussed abortion, masturbation, and homosexuality. Mary was also the youngster who was disappointed at recess because she could not interest any of her fellow first-graders in playing bridge!

Johnny, a third-grader, when queried what topic he wanted to read about, asked if the teacher knew of any books on the parole system. (His father was on parole from the state penitentiary.)

Fred experienced so much failure at trying to read that he would not even hold a book.

Dick, when asked to write a language-experience story to read and share with the class, said he only knew beer names and gang names.

Betty, the girl in class whom no one liked, wanted to read nothing but fairy tales, not the stories the rest of the students were reading.

Alice, a second-grader, read the teacher’s manual so she could see what the class was going to do tomorrow.

Tom came from a home that had few print materials; his father told Tom that he did not need to learn to read: “I didn’t learn to read” said Tom’s father, “and look how far I’ve come!”



Bob was a young man who seemed quite average until I read in his journal one day that he wanted to kill himself.

Martha and Bill and Philip and Ann and all of the rest of your students (and mine) who present nothing so dramatically unique as the students described above other than their "special" individuality, which is what makes them, and all other students, "special learners."

## **THE SPECIAL LEARNER: GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION**

Guidelines for "special learners" by my special definition apply in some way to all students.

1. Emphasize success in reading, particularly in terms of each student's unique interests and goals for reading.

I will never forget the first-grade boy who was so proud to show me his report card that had straight F's on it. I also remember a young man who boasted of being a complete "zero" because he could not read a single word. When I asked him why he believed he was a zero in reading, he responded, "Because my teacher told me so!" Subsequent assessment showed that in "Mr. Zero's" case, he had a beginner's healthy sight vocabulary (STOP, McDonald's, Santa Claus, the Cubs, etc.). He had to admit that, at least to this extent, he did read.

Each of these young readers had been introduced to the world of reading and other academic pursuits in a profoundly negative way. Success breeds success, but failure breeds failure, and this is no better illustrated than in learning to read. All students need the opportunity to know that their already high degree of individual worth increases through their various reading experiences. The effective reading teacher reinforces individual worth through structuring reading experiences so as to guarantee as much reading success as possible for every student. Anything less is a disservice to the students.

2. Build on the strengths, rather than the weaknesses, of each student.

All too often, even well-meaning teachers make students painfully aware of their shortcomings in reading, rather than reflecting to them their positive abilities as readers. The common sense of "good psychology" tells us that people learn best when they are encouraged based on what they can do, rather than continually being reminded of their weaknesses.

I remember a young man who wanted to read only so that he could pass the test for his driver's license. It would have been easy from my perspective as a teacher to criticize him for having such a limited goal for learning to read. Instead, of criticizing, I was supportive and my student not only passed the examination but he also found that he had to read so he could service his car. Much to his surprise, this young hotrodder found that to be an auto mechanic he also had to know how to read! What started out as a very narrow reason to read soon expanded into a much wider spectrum of reading interests. In this case, the reader's strength—an interest in cars and driving—became fuel in the engine of one young man's desire to roar down the open highway to greater reading.

3. Fill your classroom with every conceivable type of reading material.

You might not find comic books, food-store tabloids, sports newspapers, romance novels, wrestling magazines, and various other types of "literature" to your liking, but many of your students probably do. The students who come into your print-rich classroom ought only to have to worry about what they are going to read first, confronted by the many interesting materials that you have provided for them to choose from each time they come to class.

***The proper study of mankind is books.***

Aldous Huxley  
*Crome Yellow* (1922)

The effective reading teacher realizes that if we want students to read, they must find within themselves some reason to read, and then they must have access to the appropriate materials to meet their own goals." I am not suggesting that your formal reading curriculum "go out the window"; rather, I am recommending that you become intimately tuned in to your students' interests and that you energetically undertake to help them amass the kind of reading materials that you know they like.

The level of maturity of what they are interested in might surprise you, and many students are "deeper" than they appear! I know a teacher who asked her second-grade students what they would like to read about, fully expecting the adventures of the Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles to be their first choice. Instead, the astonished teacher heard her second-graders asking to read about AIDS, the war in the Persian Gulf, death, and what it means to live in a single-parent home. Second-graders are *older* than they used to be; these "adult" topics were the

concerns that these young students wanted to know more about. The effective teacher of reading will make every effort to know his/her students' interests, and will provide the appropriate reading material.

## **EFFECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION: THE GIFTED STUDENT**

The term "gifted," as is true of "special" learners, is difficult to define. Historically, the word has often been used to describe academic performance. On the other hand, you are probably aware of students who did not fit this traditional definition, and yet you felt that they were clearly gifted. I knew a student who could play any selection on the piano if he heard it on the radio, yet he had never had a music lesson. There was a child in my Chapter 1 reading class who, when asked to draw a shamrock for St. Patrick's Day, included the details of the veins in each leaf. Another young man in class was having trouble with reading, and yet he had read every book he could find on baseball—even those that were far above his reading level! I had another student who found reading "boring," but he could construct his own computer based on what he had read in several highly technical journals. Each of these children was gifted in some special way and it took an effective reading teacher to spot their unique "giftedness." For the purposes of this discussion, we will use the term "gifted" as it is related to reading in the broadest sense possible. Simply put, the gifted reader is the one who—because of high ability as reflected in wide and divergent reading interests, or in other ways such as creativity in art or music or technology or other frames of mind—displays behavior that is not typical of the traditional "good reader" students in your classroom.

The gifted student often presents unusual challenges to the reading teacher. In the past, unfortunately, students with high ability were often ignored because of the teacher's belief that these students would either "learn on their own despite the teacher" or because "all they needed was just more work than the rest of the class." Gifted students thus all too frequently have found themselves without much guidance from the reading teacher, although that may have been preferable to being burdened with busy-work assignments such as "two book reports instead of one!"

Ponder the following as you consider reading programs for your students with high abilities:

### **1. Flexibility of instruction**

All reading programs need an element of flexibility, but responsiveness and variation are particularly important for the gifted reader. These students have

wide interests and high ability; they do best when they are allowed the maximum flexibility for individual choices.

I remember the third-grade boy who wanted to be a pediatrician and was reading, with the support of his teacher, Dr. Spock's child-care manual. Then there was the fifth-grade girl who was reading about the American Civil War and decided it would be fun to memorize some of the Lincoln/Douglas debates. A junior-high boy of my acquaintance read in his science text about the well-accepted conclusion of a standard experiment, and proved on his own that the conclusion was false. No reading-teachers' manuals that I have ever read detailed reading experiences like these or prepare the teacher to cope intelligently with young geniuses, but by being flexible and letting these students go beyond what the traditional reading program probably suggested, I am proud to say, the students read voraciously and the reading teacher felt like a huge success.

## 2. Acceleration of instruction

Acceleration for the gifted student was once thought of in terms of early promotion to a higher grade level. Experience with this idea showed that while this early advancement might have been academically sound, it often resulted in numerous social and emotional problems. Acceleration in reading is most often accomplished these days through making available a wide range of reading materials which cover the broad spectrum of interests and abilities.

The following are some examples of students who were accelerated in their reading:

A student who was interested in learning more about the sinking of the *Titanic* was not only encouraged to read several books on the topic, but also to visit the local university library and make use of the microfilm copies of the original newspaper accounts of the tragedy.

A fifth-grade boy who wanted to know all he could about stocks and bonds was directed to copies of the *Wall Street Journal* as well as to stock reports and other information provided by a local investment firm. The fifth-grader also visited a local stockbroker, found out the kinds of job-related reading that he did, and then borrowed some of that material.

A junior-high girl who had seen a play by William Shakespeare expressed an interest in his other plays, was provided copies of the plays and the opportunity to read other, related material about the theater. Because of her interest, she wrote

to several Shakespearean actors. This developed into an extended correspondence.

These students, each in their own way, were accelerated in their reading because of their individual interests and ability, thanks in part to the guidance of astute and effective teachers.

### 3. Enrichment of instruction

For the highly motivated student, a typical reading program very quickly becomes boring and uninteresting. Students with divergent interests need to be challenged in all aspects of their reading through extended work in a great variety of material. The following suggestions have been followed by effective reading teachers:

- Teach your students to use the school and community libraries. Emphasize the use of library resources that are not elsewhere available, such as the newly developed computer retrieval systems and data bases.
- Allow self-motivated students open access to the school library throughout the day rather than during assigned periods only.
- Have as wide an array of reading materials as possible in your classroom. This may require you to borrow resources such as books, magazines, and other print materials from individuals and organizations in your community who have specialized interests or occupations.

## **YOU BECOME INVOLVED**

The effective reading teacher needs to sustain a special relationship with the special learner, whether that learner is slow or quick. Consider the following questions as you think about these students in your classroom:

1. Your attitudes as a teacher toward special learners and how you will structure their reading experiences in your classroom are very important. How do you feel about the following statements related to reading instruction and these students?

“It is not my responsibility to work with the special learner in reading—that is the job of the reading teacher.”

“I do not have the time or the patience or even the right materials to teach these students how to read. They can’t expect miracles, can they?”

**“Work with the special learner and reading is for the most part a waste of time. I need to concentrate my best efforts on the average or better-than-average students.”**

**“These special students will never need to learn how to read beyond the very elementary level. All I am doing is frustrating them as well as myself.”**

- 2. Carefully consider how you might modify your reading classes so that you can provide the best learning environment for the special student. What are the specific problems that need to be overcome before you can accomplish your goals in the development of an effective reading program for the special learner?**

*We believe that effective teaching is both a science and an art, and that every teacher must develop a style that suits his or her skills and interests, as well as students' needs.*

Richard Robinson & Thomas Good  
*Becoming an Effective Reading Teacher (1987)*

## **Chapter Seven**

# **EFFECTIVE READING TEACHERS: THEY DO MAKE A DIFFERENCE**

The results of current reading research, particularly those studies based on classroom observation, clearly indicate that teachers do teach in different ways. Research also makes evident that those differences bear a direct relationship to teacher effectiveness, with important implications for how well students learn in the classroom. Teachers can improve their reading instruction; effective teachers are teachers who *have* improved their teaching style.

The ideas in this chapter on effectiveness improvement are based on the results of a number of studies undertaken to determine the differences between more and less effective teachers. The results of educational research, even results that seem to be indisputable, need not be considered as absolute truth. Take them only as guidelines or general principles, which may not always apply exactly to the unique conditions present in your classroom. By correlating your local factors with the results of research on effectiveness in reading instruction, you will be able to implement the following ideas in your own way for the benefit of yourself and your students.



## EVALUATE YOUR CLASSROOM READING PRACTICES

Before you consider changing your reading practices, carefully evaluate what you are currently doing in your classroom instruction. The following teacher inventory is an encouragement to think about your own classroom efforts in the area of reading instruction. Each statement is general, but is designed to assist you in being specific as you think about the details of your own classroom reading program. As you consider each general statement, spell out the specific ways in which you structure your teaching of reading to meet the overall goal or objective. The nine statements below are frequently made about teachers' habits as observed in effective reading programs. Evaluate your own characteristics according to the following scale:

- |                    |                   |                 |
|--------------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1-Almost always    | 3-Sometimes       | 5-Undecided     |
| 2-Most of the time | 4-Seldom or never | 6-Not desirable |

1. The ultimate goal of my classroom reading program is to show each student the value of reading as both a source of information and as a valuable recreational pursuit. 1 2 3 4 5 6
2. In all my reading activities, I respect the self-image and individual worth of each student. 1 2 3 4 5 6
3. I know the objectives and goals of the total reading program in my school; my efforts contribute to this program. 1 2 3 4 5 6
4. My classroom reading program reflects an understanding of reading as being closely related to the other language arts—writing, speaking, and listening. 1 2 3 4 5 6
5. I am aware of differences in ability among my students; I adjust reading instruction to accommodate individual abilities and meet individual needs. 1 2 3 4 5 6
6. The use of reading materials in my classroom reflects my thorough understanding of their content and the place they have in a total reading program. 1 2 3 4 5 6
7. My reading instruction reflects my belief that the reading process is a personal search for information and an effort to construct meaning, not merely mastery of isolated skills. 1 2 3 4 5 6
8. I make every effort to supply students experiencing difficulty in learning to read with the appropriate instruction, whether in my classroom or by referring them to another teacher. 1 2 3 4 5 6
9. I am enthusiastic about my reading instruction, and I am open to suggestions and ideas related to these classroom activities. 1 2 3 4 5 6

## **ASSESS YOUR TREATMENT OF STUDENTS WITH DIFFERING ABILITIES**

Few teachers intend to discriminate among their students according to social and economic status, personality differences, or racial background. Nevertheless, as discussed in the chapter on teacher expectations, classroom observations indicate that many teachers do make these distinctions. Teachers, inadvertently in many cases but quite frequently, make fundamental instructional decisions out of assumptions premised on these student characteristics.

You, as the teacher, can change this habit in yourself. The critical question becomes how to determine in a fair and objective manner to what degree you make even unintentional discriminatory decisions. A first step would be to answer the following questions about your current reading program:

1. Make a list of your students and divide it according to your current groups for reading. Beside each name, describe the student according to the following criteria, using rough estimates where specific information is not available:
  - male or female
  - estimated family income
  - personality type (e.g. outgoing, shy, a pain to deal with)
  - how much you know about the student's family
  - general behavior in your classroom, especially behavior during reading class
  - willingness to cooperate with you in all class activities
  - where you would rank the student as a class leader (top of the class, upper 10%, upper 50%, towards the bottom)?
  - your prediction of the student's future in education
  - your prediction of the student's future occupations and personal success.

Once you have completed this evaluation of your students, go back and see if any similarities show up in terms of how you judge your students when compared to the ways you have grouped them as readers. The criteria used in this list to describe your students have little, if anything, to do with actual reading ability.

Now ask yourself some hard, and potentially embarrassing, questions:

- "Have I inadvertently placed students in specific reading groups according to race or economic background?"
- "Have I selected students based on their gender?" "Do I respond more directly, answer the questions of, and call on the boys in my class more than I do the girls?"
- "Do I seem to assume that minority children will be worse readers than the White or well-off children?"
- "Do I pass judgments about my students based on what I know about their families or how their older brothers or sisters performed previously in my class?"

If you do see similarities among students in specific reading groups, carefully evaluate why you placed those students in those groups for reasons that are not directly related to their reading ability and that may be contrary to sound educational practices.

2 Look carefully at how you structure your reading instruction. Ask yourself the following questions:

- Do I ask the same types of comprehension questions of all of my students, or do I ask for factual recall from some whereas I give others the opportunity to answer critical and interpretive questions?
- Do I respond to oral reading errors or miscues in the same way with all of the students in my class? Do I ignore some, but correct others? If there are differences, what is my rationale for these differences?
- Do I interrupt more often in oral reading with low-ability students than I do with those who are better readers?
- Do I allow different ability groups varying degrees of freedom in the selection of recreational reading materials, time for using the school library, and non-structured reading in my classroom?

Answers to questions such as these vis-à-vis your own reading instruction, and in light of your non-reading-related perceptions of your students, should give you considerab' insight into what is actually taking place in your classroom. Because determining what is actually taking place in one's classroom must inevitably be a subjective judgment, you might want to consider these two approaches:

One approach involves allowing your reading instruction to be video-taped for your personal review at a later time. It is often interesting, and always revealing, to watch ourselves being teachers. Frequently, we can observe teaching practices and habits that we never realized we were using.

Another approach is to invite a trusted teacher-friend to observe in your classroom. While this might be unsettling at first, in reality it is an excellent way to learn not only what teaching strategies might be improved but also to learn what activities go well. Before your friend visits in your class, you might brief him/her on what you particularly would like to be observed. This is not to say that your visitor need note only what you suggest, but your ideas can give the observer some initial guidance in what to look for in your reading class.

Classroom observations, whether viewed on video tape by yourself or seen through the eyes of an experienced teacher-friend, are two excellent ways to learn about what you are actually doing, intentionally or not, during your reading instruction. With this helpful feedback, you can compare your intentions with your actions and their effects.

## **ADD MORE TIME FOR REAL READING**

Teacher effectiveness research has consistently shown that students do better in reading when their teachers structure the classroom so as to provide maximum time for real reading. "Real" reading is *meaningful* reading. Meaningful reading can be any highly motivated reading, such as the use of the library not only for reference work but also as a source for recreational reading as well. When you foster real reading, your classroom becomes a Mecca for all kinds of reading as opposed to students completing excessive amounts of workbook pages and reading handouts. Students who are exposed to meaningful reading, and who are expected by their teacher to read these materials successfully, consistently show positive attitudes towards their reading.

## **INCREASE OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS TO SELECT AND MONITOR THEIR OWN READING ACTIVITIES**

The ultimate goal of all reading programs is the development of self-sufficient, satisfied readers. Effective reading teachers consistently structure their reading programs so that their students become increasingly self-directed in their reading activities. The standard against which all reading instruction should be measured is the success or failure we have as teachers in directing our students toward a lifetime of reading.

## **WHO IS AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER OF READING?**

Return to our original question: "What are the teaching characteristics that seem to distinguish the more effective from the less effective reading teacher?" In attempting to answer this question, we again propose caution, as we did in the introduction: There is no pat answer to this intricate query. Good reading teachers come packaged in many different formats with correspondingly different personalities. A search for the "ten best ways to teach reading" or the hope for the "five characteristics present in all effective reading teachers" is doomed from the start. If there were a simplistic answer, we would have long ago fired all of the reading teachers, and hired machines to teach reading—they would be cheaper and would not take coffee breaks!

While there may not be a set of stringent rules that clearly apply to all effective teachers of reading, there are, nevertheless, readily noticeable differences between individual teachers and their relative effectiveness on the reading achievement of their students. These differences are the crux of the discussion in this book. I summarize our results to say that those reading teachers in whose classroom environments the best reading progress is fostered manifest in general the following characteristics:

- An effective reading teacher is a teacher who understands the reading process and is able to translate this reading philosophy into a workable agenda for classroom instruction.
- An effective reading teacher is a teacher who has specific reasons for the instructional decisions that direct his or her reading program.
- An effective reading teacher knows the reasons for how the students are grouped and which materials are selected for instruction.
- An effective reading teacher is aware of his or her attitudes towards different ability groups.
- An effective reading teacher understands that student/teacher interactions influence student growth in reading, and therefore asks the questions, assigns the seatwork, and recommends library materials that will turn a reluctant reader into a satisfied, self-motivated, eager reader.

Perhaps most importantly, an effective reading teacher affirms and enjoys reading as a lifelong habit, and shares this affirmation and enjoyment with his or her students. To communicate this joy of reading is the ultimate achievement of any teacher of reading.

## NOTES

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15. Richard D. Robinson & Thomas Good. *Becoming an Effective Reading Teacher*. New York: Harper, 1987: 342.
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17. Richard Robinson. *Children's Reading: What Parents Can Do to Help*. Columbia, Missouri: University of Missouri, 1977.



# **RECENT RESEARCH ON TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS**

## **A Select, Annotated Bibliography from the ERIC Database**

Anderson, Richard C. and others. "Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading," Urbana, IL: University of Illinois, 1985 155 p. [ED 253 865]

Fulfilling a need for careful and thorough synthesis of an extensive body of findings on reading, this report presents leading experts' interpretations of both current knowledge of reading and the state of the art and practice of teaching reading. The introduction contains two claims: (1) the knowledge is now available to make worthwhile improvements in reading throughout the United States, and (2) if the practices seen in the classrooms of the best teachers in the best schools could be introduced everywhere, improvement in reading would be dramatic. The first chapter of the report stresses reading as the process of constructing meaning from written texts, a complex skill requiring the coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information. The second chapter, on emerging literacy, argues that reading must be seen as part of a child's general language development and not as a discrete skill isolated from listening, speaking, and writing. The third chapter, on extending literacy, stresses that as proficiency develops, reading should not be thought of as a separate subject, but as integral to learning in all content areas. The fourth chapter concerns the teacher and the classroom and notes that an indisputable conclusion of research is that the quality of teaching makes a considerable difference in children's learning. The next two chapters note that standardized reading tests do not measure everything, and that teaching is a complex profession. The last chapter contains seventeen recommendations for conditions likely to produce citizens who would read with high levels of skill and do so frequently with evident satisfaction. In the afterword, Jeanne Chall comments on the history of the report, and three appendixes contain 260 references and notes plus lists of project consultants and the members of the National Academy of Education.

6.7

Bain, Helen and others. "A Study of First Grade Effective Teaching Practices from the Project Star Class-Size Research. A Study of Fifty Effective Teachers Whose Class Average Gain Scores Ranked in the Top 15% of Each of Four School Types in Project STAR." EDRS: 1989, 37 p. [ED 321 887]

Teaching practices and professional and personal characteristics of 49 effective first-grade teachers, and the materials they used, were studied in an effort to determine what effective teachers do to promote learning in reading and mathematics. Data indicated that effective teachers: (1) had high expectations for student learning; (2) provided clear and focused instruction; (3) closely monitored student learning progress; (4) retaught using alternative strategies when children did not learn; (5) used incentives and rewards to promote learning; (6) were highly efficient in their classroom routines; (7) set and enforced high standards for classroom behavior; and (8) maintained excellent personal interactions with students.

Enthusiasm in the form of acting, demonstrating, and role playing was prominent among the teachers. The teachers were for the most part those whose classes had been substantially reduced in size or had the effect of being reduced by the use of aides. A total of 43 effective teachers had either small classes or an aide; only 7 had large classes. Due to good organization, effective teachers used almost an hour more teaching time per week for mathematics and reading than did other teachers. The effective teacher practices survey instrument, a Project STAR grouping questionnaire, and a research synthesis on effective schooling practices are appended.

Baumarin, James F. "Implications for Reading Instruction from the Research on Teacher and School Effectiveness," *Journal of Reading*, v28 n2 Nov 1984, p109-15. [EJ 306 488]

Describes the characteristics of effective reading programs and presents implications for the improvement of reading instruction.

Baumann, James F. "Six Principles for the Development of Reading Comprehension Instructional Methods and Materials," *Reading Improvement*, v20 n3 Fall 1983, p187-92. [EJ 288 072]

Examines research on teacher effectiveness and comprehension instructional strategies and proposes six principles for the development of reading comprehension instructional methods and materials.

Baumann, James F. "The Direct Instruction of Reading Comprehension Skills: A Teacher-Directiveness Paradigm," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (69th, Chicago, IL, March 31-April 4, 1985), 17 p. [ED 257 042]

The purpose of this paper is to present a direct instructional strategy, which is based upon what is known about effective classroom instruction. After defining direct instruction in reading, research that discriminates effective teachers from less effective

teachers is presented. The paper then discusses the five-step, teacher directiveness instructional paradigm, which is based upon this teacher effectiveness research. Finally, it focuses on several experimental studies validating this direct instruction approach. The paper concludes that a teacher-directiveness approach to instruction is more effective in teaching selected reading comprehension skills than is basal reader instruction. The report concludes with a five page list of references.

Baumann, James F. "The Systematic, Intensive Instruction of Reading Comprehension Skills," paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Reading Conference (34th, St. Petersburg, FL, November 28-December 1, 1984), 13 p. [ED 255 866]

In direct instruction, the teacher, in a face-to-face, reasonably formal manner, tells, shows, models, demonstrates, and teaches the skill to be learned. Therefore, it is the teacher behavior aspect of classroom instruction that underpins the instructional strategy for teaching main ideas. Much has been learned about teacher behaviors that discriminate successful teachers from less successful teachers. Most of the teacher behaviors described in teacher effectiveness research cluster under the rubric "direct instruction." In a global sense, when direct instruction occurs, enough time is allocated to reading instruction, teachers accept responsibility for student achievement, and they expect that their students will learn. One direct instruction strategy for teaching students various reading comprehension skills is a five-step approach documented by the work and research of J. F. Baumann. The five steps consist of introduction, example, direct instruction, teacher-directed application, and independent practice. That is, the teacher tells the students what the lesson will be about; the teacher provides an example; the teacher actually teaches the lesson; and then the teacher gradually releases responsibility for learning to the students through guided application exercises and by providing independent practice.

Book, Cassandra L. and others. "A Study of the Relationship between Teacher Explanation and Student Metacognitive Awareness during Reading Instruction," *Communication Education*, v34 n1 January 1985, p29-36. [EJ 311 334]

Supports the hypotheses that (1) students of teachers trained to use explicit explanation are more aware of what they had been taught than students of teachers who are not similarly trained and (2) there is a significant positive relationship between teacher explanation and student metacognitive awareness.

Bruneau, Beverly J. "A Case Study of the Process of Reflective Coaching in Collaboration with a Kindergarten Teacher Developing an Emergent Literacy Program," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (39th, Austin, Texas, November 28-December 2, 1989), 25 p. [ED 316 842]

This study was conducted to describe the process of reflective coaching as a means of assisting a kindergarten teacher in developing her own kindergarten program in which she stated she wished to begin to incorporate new strategies based on emergent literacy research. A kindergarten teacher and a teacher educator/researcher participated in the study. The researcher and the teacher worked together once weekly for 10 weeks from September through November as co-participants. The researcher modeled new kinds of teaching strategies as she worked with the children and also actively modeled her thinking while implementing the new strategies. Field notes were written to describe classroom actions of both participants and the children's involvement with written language. Weekly interviews were audiotaped to document the reflective coaching process as well as to understand the perspective of the participants.

The data were analyzed through the process of categorical analysis to determine categories of meaning or semantic domains. Results of the case study indicated some interesting points worthy of reflection in terms of facilitating teacher development: (1) the teacher maintained ownership of the problems on which she wished to work; (2) problem-solving was a joint venture solved within the context of the teacher's classroom; and (3) reflection in action appeared to be highly important in helping the teacher make changes in her kindergarten program. (Twenty-six references are attached.)

Campbell, Robin. "The Teacher as a Role Model during Sustained Silent Reading (SSR)," *Reading*, v23 n3 November 1989, p179-83. [EJ 400 411]

Emphasizes that the teacher as a role model is crucial to the success of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR). Suggests that teacher modeling of sharing activities immediately after SSR is also very important.

Carnine, Douglas and Russell Gersten. "The Effectiveness of Direct Instruction in Teaching Selected Reading Comprehension Skills. Preliminary Draft," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (67th, Montreal, Canada, April 11-15, 1983), 48 p. [ED 246 383]

As a first step in developing a research program that united several individual strands of comprehension research, this paper describes studies that relate to the effectiveness of direct instruction. Various sections of the paper discuss the following topics: (1) variables in the direct instruction model, (2) teacher performance variables, (3) instructional design variables, (4) teaching component skills, and (5) limiting cases for strategy practice and feedback. Overall findings reported in the paper suggest that

direct instruction provides a framework for analyzing comprehension instruction in terms of teaching techniques, text structures, metacognitive strategies, and specific skills.

Carroll, Susan. *Words + Numbers: The CT Summer Incentive Program: An Evaluation of Three Years--FY86, FY87, FY88*. Words + Numbers, Torrington, CT., Connecticut State Dept. of Education, Hartford. Bureau of Research, Planning, and Evaluation, 1987. [ED 300 470]

The Act to Encourage the Expansion of Remedial Education Programs during Summer (P.A. 85-576), passed by the Connecticut General Assembly, provided local and regional boards of education with the opportunity to offer students in grades K through 8 remedial summer school services. Summer Incentive monies were granted to 25 programs from Fiscal Year (FY) 1986 to FY 1988. Among the findings of an evaluation of the Summer Incentive programs are the following: (1) academic instruction averaged 3 hours per day; (2) in FY 1986, 9 programs served 2,205 students, in FY 1987, 21 programs served 4,227 students, and in FY 1988, 18 programs served 3,925 students; (3) there was an almost equal proportion of white and non-white students; (4) although all grade levels were represented, the majority of students were in elementary school; (5) overall attendance rates were at least 82 percent; (6) students who participated in the programs made gains in the basic skill areas of reading, mathematics, and language arts; (7) 76 percent of all reading and math scores, and 71 percent of all language arts scores, increased; (8) teachers targeted specific objectives through defined curricula; (9) teachers of high quality were recruited; (10) the small class size provided for more individualized help for the students; (11) an upbeat climate permeated Summer School environments; (12) incentive/reward systems allowed youngsters to feel success; and (13) parental partnerships were attempted. Individual program highlights are discussed. Recommendations for improvement are offered. Data are presented on graphs and tables. A map, a calendar, student artwork, and several photographs accompany the text.

Combs, Martha. "Beginning Teachers: How Do They Make Decisions about Reading?" paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Reading and Language Arts Educators' Conference (1st, Kansas City, MO, September 26-28, 1984), 15 p. [ED 251 808]

Sixteen first-year elementary school teachers participated in telephone interviews and classroom observations that focused on decision making processes before and during reading instruction. The most difficult aspect for the majority of teachers interviewed was explaining what influenced their decisions. The major decisions made prior to reading centered around grouping, techniques, materials, and pacing. Initial placement of students in reading groups was based on standardized reading test scores and recommendations made during the previous year, while the decision to rely heavily upon oral reading performance and phonics ability seemed to be a function of both the reading consultant's practices and the new teacher's own experience as a reader. Neither informal reading inventories nor training from



methods courses were used in the placement. While concerned about flexibility in meeting individual needs of students, only about one quarter of the teachers routinely considered making reading group changes throughout the year. Teachers did not feel the pressure for pacing with children in high ability groups that they felt with those in low reading ability groups. Techniques for instruction centered on student motivation rather than on effective teaching strategies. Teachers seemed to feel a need to complete the lesson as planned or to wait until after instruction to formulate any new teaching plans. Such changes seemed related to the use of new materials to teach the same skill rather than a different approach. The results suggest that teacher educators should help prospective teachers view themselves as decision makers, and should use a planning process that encourages prospective teachers to consider alternative teaching strategies.

Crawford, John. "A Study of Instructional Processes in Title I Classes: 1981-82 [and] Executive Summary," *Journal of Research and Evaluation of the Oklahoma City Public Schools*, v14 n1 Jun 1983, 238 p. [ED 247 282]

The purpose of this study was to identify effective and ineffective strategies for teaching Title I students. The data collection took the form of direct observations of teacher-student interactions and classroom activities in the classes of 79 Oklahoma City Public Schools Title I teachers. The data on achievement gains came from the California Achievement Test administered in May 1981 and May 1982. The results for reading indicated that, across all grade-levels, the teachers who allocated more time for academic activities and who interacted more with their students tended to have students with higher achievement gains. The teachers whose students had higher gains also tended to rely more on one-to-one interactions, used some challenge in the lesson content, used opinion questions and "higher order" questions, and used feedback strategies that sustained the interaction. Although some of the results for math agreed with the reading findings, there were also some notable differences. In general, the profile of the effective math teacher was more characterized by public interactions and by faster-paced activity than in reading. Small group activity was positively associated with gain, and, as in reading, sustaining feedback was a better strategy than redirecting a question to another child.

Crocker, Robert K. "What Research Says to the Teacher: Classroom Processes and Student Outcomes," paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Society for the Study of Education (Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada, June 1-4, 1986), 20 p. [ED 277 095]

After reviewing effective teaching research during the past 20 years, one basic question arises: do teachers make any difference? Specifically, do teachers' classroom practices have any effect on student outcomes beyond the effects of ability and home background? What knowledge of minimal teaching competencies has been gained, and how firm is the knowledge base? Attempting to address these issues, this paper reports the results of a year-long classroom observation study involving 75 second- and fifth-grade teachers. Outcome measures included reading and mathematics

achievement, student self-concept and classroom social status, and classroom behavior ratings. Teacher perceptions were measured through Q-sort, questionnaires, and indepth interviews. The study focused on the "commonplaces" of teaching, including content coverage, time usage, student-task engagement, group and individual instruction, question-response sequences, and student discipline. Results suggest that achievement is maximized by the following classroom conditions: high emphasis on academic instruction and student engagement in academic tasks, whole class instruction, effective question-answer and seatwork practices, minimal disruptive behavior, and prompt feedback to students. While little relationship between teaching variables and student achievement can be proven, the above recommendations are low-cost and worth trying.

Curtis, Jonathan J. "Identification of Exemplary Teachers of LEP Students," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (68th, New Orleans, LA, April 23-27, 1984), 8 p. [ED 247 302]

Teachers from the Austin Independent School District were identified as providing exemplary instruction to elementary Hispanic limited-English-proficient (LEP) students based on a comparison of predicted versus actual achievement scores in reading, language, and math. Predicted performance was based on equations generated by stepwise linear regressions in which the following predictor variables were available: the previous year's performance in reading, language, and math and their interactions, and the student's entry level of oral English and Spanish and their interaction. The analyses identified 12 teachers whose average Normal Curve Equivalent (NCE) residual gain scores were positive in reading, language, and math. Only second and third grade teachers met the pre-established criteria. In addition to identifying exemplary teachers of LEP students, it was planned that the subsequent year's evaluation would attempt to isolate characteristics of the teachers identified that may account for their success.

DeFabio, Roseanne. *Classroom as Text: Reading, Interpreting, and Critiquing a Literature Class. Report Series 2.7.*, Center for the Learning and Teaching of Literature, Albany, New York, 1989, 28 p. [ED 315 761]

Presenting a portrait of a high school literature classroom, this paper gives a detailed, evocative characterization of what one particular and well-regarded high school literature teacher actually does in her classroom. The paper describes how the teacher-researcher chose a colleague whose experience and expertise were generally thought to be exceptional. The researcher conducted taped interviews with the teacher and the students, gathered lesson plans, study guidelines, and assignments related to instructional units, and made videotapes of the classes involved.

The paper concludes that the classroom observed was both teacher-directed and student-centered: the teacher direction was so skillful as to be almost invisible, and the teacher's organizational skills provided a classroom environment in which students actively engaged in the process of reading, interpreting, and criticizing texts. It was

also observed that the teacher's focus on student-generated responses and questions kept the classroom discussion centered on issues of genuine concern to the readers.

Department of Education, Washington, DC; Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC. "What Works. Research about Teaching and Learning." EDRS: 1986, 90 p. [ED 263 299]

Educational research studies conducted in recent years are distilled into 41 significant findings or conclusions that can be used as a practical guide for parents and teachers seeking those educational practices found to be most effective in helping children to learn. The 41 findings are displayed one to a page. Each page is organized into three parts: (1) the "research finding," stated succinctly; (2) several paragraphs of "comment" elaborating on the finding; and (3) "references" to the major educational research studies that support the finding. The findings cover such topics as: reading to children, counting, early writing, developing talent, getting parents involved, phonics, science experiments, managing classroom time, tutoring, memorization, homework, school climate, discipline, effective principals, cultural literacy, foreign language, rigorous courses, extracurricular activities, and preparation for work. The 41 findings are grouped under three major headings: Home (8 topics), Classroom (19 topics), and School (14 topics). This handbook represents a concerted effort to demonstrate that the educational process is susceptible to being understood and that research can reveal practical concepts that will improve that process. It is an attempt to supply clear, accurate, reliable, and non-controversial information to parents and educators on some of the most important everyday educational questions.

Dillon, Deborah R. "Showing Them That I Want Them to Learn and That I Care about Who They Are: A Microethnography of the Social Organization of a Secondary Low-Track English-Reading Classroom," *American Educational Research Journal*, v26 n2 Summer 1989, p227-59. [EJ 409 699]

Field notes and interview data were triangulated with secondary data in this ethnographic study to generate a description of social organization. A partial theory of the teacher's actions in working with a predominantly Black group of 17 low-income rural high school students was devised. Teacher effectiveness in this situation is described.

Duffy, Gerald G. "From Turn Taking to Sense Making: Broadening the Concept of Reading Teacher Effectiveness," *Journal of Educational Research*, v76 n3 Jan-Feb 1983, p134-39. [EJ 277 349]

The traditional practice of having students read or respond to questions in turn is questioned. Research suggests that teacher effectiveness improves when teachers clearly explain the task at hand before children respond.



Duffy, Gerald G. and others. "Conceptualizing Instructional Explanation," *Teaching and Teacher Education*, v2 n3 1986, p197-214. [EJ 348 344]

Drawing on a four-year study of teacher explanation of skills and strategies during elementary reading instruction, this paper identifies and describes properties which distinguish the explanations of more effective teachers from those of less effective teachers. Excerpts of lesson transcripts are used to illustrate these properties.

Duffy, Gerald G. and others. "How Teachers' Instructional Talk Influences Students' Understanding of Lesson Content," *Elementary School Journal*, v87 n1 Sept 1986, p3-16. [EJ 342 946]

Describes three pairs of lessons in which the same skill taught to the same kinds of students by identically trained teachers results in noticeable differences in what students remember following instruction. Focuses on how student understanding of lesson content is influenced by relatively subtle differences in what a teacher says.

Duffy, Gerald G. and others. "The Curricular and Instructional Conceptions Undergirding the Teacher Explanation Project," *Occasional Paper*, No. 98 1986, 47 p. [ED 273 932]

The conceptual base of a project that examined teachers' explanations of reading skills and strategies to low-ability students is reviewed in this paper. Following a brief discussion of the background of the project, the paper explores the curricular conceptions underlying it. Specifically discussed are two views of how direct instruction should be used to improve comprehension, the first arguing that comprehension is developed primarily through direct instruction in the content of the text, the second holding that it is developed through direct instruction in the process by which content is understood--the view that undergirds the Teacher Explanation Project. The paper next examines the instructional conception guiding the project, which is based on four characteristics of effective teacher explanation: (1) a responsiveness to student restructuring of information; (2) an effort to put students in conscious control by creating awareness; (3) the presentation of declarative, conditional, and procedural information that is conceptually accurate, explicit, meaningful, and sequenced; and (4) assistance for students as they build understandings by providing sequencing and restructuring "hooks." A list of 64 references is appended.

Eldredge, J. Lloyd and Dennie Butterfield. "Sacred Cows Make Good Hamburger. A Report on a Reading Research Project Titled 'Testing the Sacred Cows in Reading,'" 1984, 93 p. [ED 255 861]

Because of concern about the harmful effects of placing children in low reading groups, this study tested the following "sacred cows" in reading: (1) the use of informal reading inventories for grouping children in reading instruction, (2) the homogeneous grouping practices currently utilized in most classrooms in the United States, (3) the use of readability formulas to identify "appropriate" reading materials

for children to read, (4) the idea that children can be taught to read effectively only via basal readers, and (5) the analytical phonics strategies used to teach children phonics skills. The five experimental programs involved in the study were assigned to second grade classrooms in four Utah school districts. Students in both experimental and control classrooms were administered pre- and posttests in reading, vocabulary, reading comprehension, phonics, self image, and interest in reading. Reading vocabulary and reading comprehension were tested using the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Level B, Form 1. The findings suggest that by involving students in a lot of noninstructional reading and by using: (1) an analytical/synthetic decoding approach; (2) phonics to identify words not recognizable on sight; (3) heterogeneous grouping; and (4) children's literature rather than basal readers, student reading achievement is significantly greater than it is for those taught by traditional methods. (Numerous tables of findings and seven appendixes contain material relevant to the study.)

Engelmann, Siegfried and Linda A. Meyer. "Reading Comprehension Instruction in Grades 4, 5, and 6: Program Characteristics; Teacher Perceptions; Teacher Behaviors; and Student Performance," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (68th, New Orleans, LA, April 23-27, 1984), 35 p. [ED 250 653]

A three-part study was conducted to present an indepth look at reading comprehension instruction in the middle grades. In the first part of the study, four basal series for grades 4, 5, and 6, were analyzed for clarity of communication, adequacy of skill practice provided, and a number of other comprehension related dimensions. In the second part, 17 teachers were videotaped as they taught two comprehension topic areas and were interviewed to get their perceptions of the texts they used and of their students' mastery of the material taught. These results were compared with those obtained from a larger sample of teachers who completed questionnaires. The third part of the study examined student achievement for the observed teachers on criterion-referenced tests designed to assess what was taught. Overall results indicated that (1) the text presentations were inadequate in terms of their instructional design features, (2) the teachers did not improve upon the texts, (3) teacher perceptions of how well they taught and how much their students learned were inaccurate, and (4) only 55% of the students learned 50% of the comprehension skills presented.

Engelmann, Siegfried and Donald Steely. "Implementation of Basal Reading in Grades 4-6. Final Report," 1980 80 p. [ED 250 652]

The results of a three-part study, conducted to present an indepth look at reading comprehension instruction in the middle grades, are described in this report. Four major areas are covered: teacher's verbal reports, program specifications, teaching behavior, and student mastery. The report first describes the research design, or how a profile of reading instruction was established for grades four through six. The procedures of obtaining data are described: audio interviews, video taping, program analysis, and student performance. The results are presented and discussed and the following types of comparisons are made: (1) some teacher verbal reports are

compared to actual program specifications; (2) some teacher behaviors are compared to both program specifications and verbal reports; and (3) student performance is compared to program specifications, teacher behavior, and teacher verbal reports. A summary of the study is offered and the results of administrator interviews are presented. The questionnaire used is described and data from questionnaire responses are compared with those gathered from teacher observation.

Ferrell, Susan and Almee Howely. "Effective Teaching and the Teaching of Teachers: Reflections from Personal Experience," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (New Orleans, LA, February 17-20, 1988), 10 p. [ED 291 741]

This paper records the experiences of two teacher educators at a small liberal arts college who attempted to deliver instruction in ways that were designed to meet the needs of individual preservice students. The program was individualized for the students in three ways: (1) the pace of instruction was matched with the abilities of individual students; (2) meaningful clinical experiences were designed and delivered throughout the four-year undergraduate programs; and (3) effective teaching practices were modeled in the professional education courses. Certain innovations were based upon current research on effective teaching. Central to the program was an integrated methods course and courses in elementary reading and diagnostic/remedial reading. Teacher educators, preservice teachers, and public school personnel worked together intensively in field experiences in the schools. The program modifications were seen as a successful attempt at incorporating effective teaching methods into higher education classrooms.

Flood, James and others. "Reading Comprehension Performance: The Effects of Teacher Presentations and Text Features," *Reading Research and Instruction*, v29 n1 Fall 1989, p1-11. [EJ 400 324]

Examines the role of the teacher in enhancing students' reading comprehension. Finds that the teacher is a more significant factor in the comprehension of lengthy natural texts than is the ease of the text itself.

Gersten, Russell and Douglas Carnine. "Direct Instruction in Reading Comprehension," *Educational Leadership*, v43 n7 Apr 1986, p70-78. [EJ 339 723]

Outlines the components of direct instruction. Research demonstrates that the types of questions asked, the detailed step-by-step breakdowns, and the extensive practice with examples (illustrated in the three studies discussed) significantly benefit students' comprehension. Includes references and five figures.

Gibbs, Vanita M. and others. "Reading: The Core of Learning," proceedings of the Annual Reading Conference (13th, Terre Haute, Indiana, June 16-17, 1983), 60 p. [ED 241 903]

Reflecting the views of teachers, reading specialists, and professors on both the basics and the new technologies in reading instruction, these conference proceedings begin with Carl Personke's address, "The Word's the Thing," on classroom activities that stress the word as concept. The second paper, William Linville's and David Waterman's "Now That You Have a Microcomputer," discusses computer programs in reading and lists companies offering computer catalogs, while the third, "Writing for Reading: Listening to the Flip Side," by Catherine Baker, examines the cause/effect relationship between reading and writing. In the fourth paper, "Reading Poetry: Back to Basics," James Mullican suggests why poetry is basic to human culture and offers strategies for involving children with poetry. The fifth paper, Robert Arnett's "Sans Scintillating Salesmanship Skills, Reading Centers Sag," describes how to convince administrators and students of the importance of reading programs and reading, and the sixth paper, "Listen to My Ideas and I Will Read: A Case for Kindergarten Experiences," by Jan McCarthy, examines the teacher's impact on student learning. Carl Personke's closing address, "Wherein We'll Catch the King," investigates schema theory and reading.

Giordano, Gerard. "Commentary: Is Experimental Research Snowing Us?" *Journal of Reading*, v27 n1 Oct 1983, p5-7. [EJ 289 465]

Suggests that the work of reading researchers may be ineffective because it lacks a practical impact on teacher educators or classroom teachers.

Goetz, Ernest T. and others. "Elaborative Strategies: Promises and Dilemmas for Instruction in Large Classes," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (33rd, Austin, TX, November 29-December 3, 1983), 16 p. [ED 243 073]

Prompted by the lack of research on learning in large college classes in terms of the cognitive processes and strategies students use, an experimental, preliminary study implemented generative activities in an undergraduate educational psychology class of approximately 70 students. The activities involved such things as stopping in the middle of a lecture to have students either paraphrase a principle or definition or summarize what was just said, or having them compose or analyze metaphors and generate new examples or analogies. Instructors provided feedback by presenting one or more prototypical, appropriate elaborations, or by discussing some common misconception in elaborations. Despite the limitations of the study, several observations were made, among them that (1) generative activities can be developed for most of what is taught; (2) implementing generative activities in large, college classes is logistically possible and worthwhile; (3) the effectiveness of generative activities in large classes reflects student differences; (4) students may not be comfortable when asked to engage in generative activities; (5) students may need training in the use of

generative processes; and (6) providing adequate feedback to the students is crucial to the success of generative activities.

**Guerrero, Frank and Phyllis Goldberg. *The Collaborative Consultation Support System Program 1987-88. Evaluation Section Report.* New York City Board of Education, Brooklyn. Office of Educational Assessment, 1989. [ED 304 442]**

An evaluation is presented of the Collaborative Consultation Support System Program (CCSSP) which was developed to provide support to public schools in need of assistance. The school in which the program was established consisted of students who were mostly from poor and culturally diverse families. For the purpose of improving instruction, 18 teachers were "paired" to work together. The pairs were comprised of at least one experienced teacher and one probationary teacher. The objectives of the CCSSP were: (1) to provide beginning teachers with a strong knowledge base to make them more effective; (2) to train selected experienced teachers in a collegial, coaching, supervision/observation process; (3) to establish a process of ongoing peer coaching, staff development and support for teachers in the school; (4) to develop a cadre of teachers and administrators who can help others apply the teacher effectiveness research; and (5) to improve overall student achievement in mathematics and reading. In this report the proposal for the program is outlined and the program rationale is described. An evaluation of the program includes descriptions of program activities and findings obtained from interviews with the participants, surveys that evaluated the program training, and an analysis of student scores on standardized tests.

**Gustafson, David J. "Teacher Knowledge of Their Students' Learning Strengths and Weaknesses," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (8th, Clearwater, FL, December 3-6, 1987), 9 p. [ED 294 144]**

Cumulative school records kept on children generally contain only standardized test scores and random notes concerning conduct, yet some theorists suggest that one of the most powerful tools of assessment is teachers' daily observation. To determine teachers' capability for evaluating their students' reading, a study examined teachers' informal diagnoses of the reading difficulties of 14 subjects, grades three to nine, who had been referred to a reading center for diagnosis and remediation of perceived reading problems. In many cases the child was referred to the center by the participating teacher. Each teacher was sent a letter asking "How does this student learn?" and "What seems to impede his/her learning?" Expectations were that teacher comments would be especially directed toward the reading ability of the students and that comments would specifically relate to the four cueing systems outlined by May (1986): syntactic, semantic, graphophonic, and background. Results showed that teachers' knowledge of their students was quite general at best. Few of the comments reflected the widely held view of reading as an interactive process, and there was almost a total absence of specific strategy statements which could result in:



direct teaching. Instead, there were many statements involving what impeded the students' learning. (Four references are attached.)

Guthrie, John T. "Research Views: Classroom Management," *Reading Teacher*, v36 n6 Feb 1983, p606-08. [EJ 274 260]

Reviews research concerning the characteristics and behaviors of teachers who are effective classroom managers.

Guthrie, John T., Ed. "Responding to 'A Nation at Risk': Appraisal and Policy Guidelines," 1983, 24 p. [ED 240 525]

Intended to assist educational leaders by identifying recommendations from the report, "A Nation at Risk," that are relevant to reading and literacy and by suggesting instructional guidelines consistent with both the report and current reading research, this booklet presents policy guidelines in the following areas: (1) literacy processes, (2) curriculum content, (3) teacher effectiveness, (4) textbook quality, and (5) parent involvement. The first section discusses instructional objectives for reading, writing, and study skills while the second briefly touches on methods of implementing English instruction, reading across the curriculum, and the United States' literary heritage. The third section examines the impact of time use, organization, and teacher preparation on teacher effectiveness, and the fourth considers the selection and use of textbooks. The final section discusses the importance of parental involvement in children's education.

Guzzetti, Barbara J. and Robert J. Marzano. "Correlates of Effective Reading Instruction," *Reading Teacher*, v37 n8 Apr 1984, p754-58. [EJ 294 727]

Notes that school effectiveness research has identified particular process and content characteristics associated with gains in reading achievement. Examines the research and the application of research findings.

Hoffman, James V., Ed. "Effective Teaching of Reading: Research and Practice," International Reading Association, Newark, Del. 1986, 315 p. [ED 265 504]

Distilling and interpreting past and current research on the effective teaching of reading is the focus of this volume. The titles and authors are as follows: "Research in Effective Teaching: An Overview of Its Development" (William H. Rupley, Beth S. Wise, and John W. Logan); "Process-Product Research on Effective Teaching: A Primer for a Paradigm" (James V. Hoffman); "Principles for Conducting First Grade Reading Group Instruction" (Jere Brophy); "Effective Use of Time in Secondary Reading Programs" (Jane A. Stallings); "Case Study of a Changing Reading Program and the Role of Teacher Effectiveness Research" (Mark W. F. Condon and Marilyn B. Kapel); "Effective Use of Instructional Time: The Cupertino Project" (Martha Rapp Haggard and Jennifer Reese Better); "Changing Teacher Practice: A Research Based School Improvement Study" (Gary A. Griffin and Susan Barnes); "Instructional Decision Making and Reading Teacher Effectiveness" (Gerald G. Duffy and Deborah L. Ball); "Studying Qualitative Dimensions of Instructional Effectiveness" (Laura R.

Roehler and Gerald G. Duffy); "Project READ: An Inservice Model for Training Classroom Teachers in Effective Reading Instruction" (Robert Calfee and Marcia K. Henry); "The Madeline Hunter Model of Teacher Effectiveness" (Renee Weisberg); "Policy Constraints and Effective Compensatory Reading Instruction: A Review" (Richard L. Allington); and "What We Know and What We Need to Learn About Reading Instruction."

Holland, Kathleen E. "Parents and Teachers: Can Home and School Literacy Boundaries Be Broken?" *Education in Appalachia. Proceedings from the Conference, 1987*. [ED 300 182]

This study investigated home-school communication patterns between special reading teachers and parents of the children they served, with attention to teachers' and parents' views of each other as literacy supporters of children. The paper discusses the acquisition of literacy by children, formally at school and informally at home, as well as various social and cultural influences on literacy education, especially in Appalachia. Studies show that schools, particularly urban schools, often fail to recognize Appalachian culture and thus fail to serve the Appalachian child. Parent-teacher communication often is hindered by boundary-setting and territoriality in which the power balance traditionally is tipped toward the teacher. The research population was 13 Columbus, Ohio, urban Black and Appalachian parents of first-graders from poor and working-class economic backgrounds. The children were participating in the Reading Recovery Program, an early intervention tutoring program for first graders at risk of failure. Two styles of communication, active and passive, evolved among the seven teachers in the study. Active teachers tended to pursue parents relentlessly in order to get them involved with their children's education. Passive teachers used formal, less personal communication. Active teachers created three-way collaborative learning experiences, involving both parents and children in the education process. At conferences, parents discussed the home literacy context, while teachers discussed the formal school context. The paper concludes that active teachers were far more successful than passive teachers in obtaining parent participation and recommends that students take a bigger role in parent-teacher conferences and that the family-school relationship be a triangular one. Twenty-two references, four tables.

Hull, Starr and Margaret Shaw-Baker. "Questions Good Teachers of Reading Should Ask," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association (34th, New Orleans, LA, April 30-May 4, 1989), 24 p. [ED 311 398]

Good teachers of reading should ask questions which link the research knowledge base in reading, effective teaching, and learning with proficient decision-making skills. These questions should focus on the content to be taught, the behaviors of the student, and the behaviors of the teacher. Content questions address central concepts, prior knowledge needs, strategies to be taught, difficult vocabulary, inferential questions to be asked, and ways to integrate other subjects in the curriculum.



Questions concerned with learning behavior of the student are aimed at discovering in which mode the student learns most easily and how the student will show understanding of what has been learned, and of the skills which aid comprehension.

Behavior-of-the-teacher questions address how to determine the student's prior knowledge, building background knowledge, teaching comprehension strategies, incorporating principles of motivation and practice, managing instructional time, providing immediate and continuous assessment upon which to base future decisions, integrating subjects, reading orally to the students, and providing silent reading time. All these questions serve as the basis for a model lesson. By implementing the decisions reached after this questioning process, teachers will transfer control of the reading reasoning process from themselves to their students. This will promote the development of students as active, constructive, strategic, fluent, and motivated readers.

Jones, Noel K. and Mary Gendernalik Cooper. "Teacher Effectiveness and Education: A Case of Incompatibility? North Carolina's Effective Teaching Training Program: Implications for Social Studies. Implications for Language Curricula," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Washington, DC, April 20-24, 1987), 28 p. [ED 284 829]

The Effective Teacher Training Program in North Carolina is based upon correlational studies primarily limited to the areas of reading, math and language knowledge, and to learning outcomes that consist of basic skills, factual knowledge, and concept name identification. Despite warnings against overgeneralization within the studies themselves, the direct instruction model, which receives support from this research, is being applied to instruction in all areas of the curriculum and to all levels of learning. This instructional model conflicts with the way learning is understood in social studies and with evidence indicating that direct instruction inhibits the development of critical thinking and inquiry--aims highly valued by social studies educators. This paper challenges the assumption that effective teaching practices are neutral concerning curriculum choices and argues that a behaviorist logical-positivist model of curriculum is being imposed on all teachers even though there is strong evidence that this model is inconsistent with conditions that foster the development of language competence and literacy. It is concluded that, both in social studies and in language arts, teachers must be allowed to make professional informed decisions about learning activities so that they can select appropriate conditions for types and levels of learning.

King, Edith W. "Promising Practices in Teaching Ethnically Diverse Children," *Momentum*, v14 n1 Feb 1983, p38-40. [EJ 287 043]

Describes a research project identifying promising practices in teaching ethnically diverse children in seven Denver elementary schools. Reveals that successful teachers create a stimulating environment, individualize the curriculum, use flexible

reading groups, allow relaxed unrestricted movement, focus on cultural continuity, and stress mutual respect and involvement by teacher and children.

Korinek, Lori. "Questioning Strategies in Special Education: Links to Teacher Efficacy Research in General Education," *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, v21 n1 Fall 1987, p16-22. [EJ 362 978]

The purpose of this study was to examine and describe the types of questioning strategies used by teachers of elementary level exceptional students during reading instruction, the types of responses by students, and the relationship between teacher questioning and student response. Results are compared to teacher effectiveness research and discussed.

Kurth, Ruth Justine and Linda J. Stromberg. "Improving the Teaching of Comprehension in Elementary Schools: A Second Year Report," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (68th, New Orleans, LA, April 23-27, 1984), 36 p. [ED 245 184]

A 2-year study designed to develop ways to improve both the quantity and the quality of the comprehension instruction offered by elementary school teachers involved 9 teachers in the first year and 11 teachers in the second. In each year of the study, the same research procedures were followed, with researchers observing the teachers, then working with teachers on ways to incorporate more comprehension instruction in their classes. The researchers used a modified version of the N. Boyan and W. Copeland supervision model that gives guidelines for bringing about teacher change using clinical supervision techniques. A comparison of the pre- and post-intervention observation data showed improvement in all areas measured for both years. The results of the second-year observations of the first-year subjects also showed that the positive changes in teaching behavior were sustained, even after the intervention had stopped. The second-year teachers also showed positive changes in their attitudes concerning their ability to teach reading.

Langer, Judith A. "Literacy Instruction in American Schools: Problems and Perspectives," 1984, 54 p. [ED 249 475]

Recent studies of reading and writing instruction suggest that literacy instruction is easily distorted, incorporating measures of achievement that do not reflect students' mastery of the process of understanding, reading materials that are ill-structured and divorced from any real communicative intent, and exercises in subskill learning that remain divorced from the intended achievements. An alternative model of literacy learning, based on the notion of instructional scaffolding, offers five characteristics of interaction that are critical to the success of activities in classrooms. These characteristics suggest that (1) the instructional task permits students to make their own contribution to the activity as it evolves, thus allowing them to have a sense of ownership of their work; (2) the instructional task grows out of knowledge and skills the students already have, but poses problems that cannot be solved without further help; (3) direct instruction in the form of questioning, modeling, or constructive

dialogue helps the student develop a successful approach to the task; (4) the teacher's role in the instructional event is collaborative rather than evaluative; and (5) over time, instruction changes in response to the student's internalization of the patterns and approaches practiced with the teacher's assistance.

Lavelly, Carolyn and others. "Expertise in Teaching: Expert Pedagogues." EDRS: 1986, 12 p. [ED 292 792]

The purpose of this article is to report a review of the developing empirical literature to explain "expert" teacher behavior, by analogy, from the cognitive psychology expertise literature. Emphasized is a review of the expert-novice cognitive-psychology literature, encompassing the research on chess and other games; physics, medicine, and other academic disciplines; and other areas. Also emphasized is the modest but growing, partly ethnographic, partly empirical, expert versus novice-teacher research literature, focusing on the public school level, as opposed to the college level. Also addressed are other, traditional, empirical approaches to estimating expertise in teaching including the traditional teacher evaluation research. Considered are the qualities of teaching-excellence literature; student-rating-scale and teaching-qualities correlation, and factor-analytic literature; the incompetent-teacher literature; and, finally, the classroom-teaching-effectiveness literature developed primarily in reading and mathematics, including direct instruction and transitions. Thirty-six references are included.

Lehr, Fran. "ERIC/RCS Report: Teacher Effectiveness Research and Reading Instruction," *Language Arts*, v59 n8 Nov-Dec 1982, p883-87 [EJ 271 105]

Examines material in the ERIC system related to research in the area of effective teaching behaviors. Suggests that the nature of early studies to this effect is responsible for the minimal impact of this research on classroom practices.

Lewis, Rena B. "Learning Disabilities and Reading: Instructional Recommendations from Current Research," *Exceptional Children*, v50 n3 Nov 1983, p230-40. [ED 291 621]

The review of research on the teaching of reading to learning disabled (LD) students first examines past conceptualizations of LD, favors the hypothesis that LD students fail to deploy cognitive resources effectively, examines recent research on teacher effectiveness, and suggests 10 strategies for teaching reading to LD students.

Lumpkin, Donavon, Ed., and others. "Evaluation in Reading: Learning, Teaching, Administering. Sixth Yearbook of the American Reading Forum," *American Reading Forum*, 1986, 369 p. [ED 290 136]

Centering around the common theme of reading evaluation, the papers in this yearbook were either presented at or are based on presentations from the 1985 American Reading Forum conference. Titles of some of the papers and their authors are as follows: "Teacher Competency Testing" (S. Kossack); "Principals as Instruc-

tional Leaders" (J. Laffey); "Issues Related to Testing" (W. Otto); "Issues Related to Labels" (K. Camperell); "Issues Related to Personal Context" (B. Hays); "A View of a Statewide Evaluation" (J. Handler and D. Carlson); "The Role of the Reading Educator in the Training of Elementary School Principals" (R. Kurth); "Are Student Interviews a Legitimate Evaluation Tool for Assessing School Reading Programs?" (J. Cassidy and others); "Evaluation of Adult Illiterates' Oral Language Associations with the Paradigmatic/Syntagmatic Inventory" (J. Dinnan and L. Pulling); "Nonliterate Adults' Knowledge of and Attitudes toward Microcomputers for Reading Instruction" (L. Wachter and E. Askov); "Application of Teacher Effectiveness: Research" (T. Blair and J. Young with a reaction by C. Stice); "Reading Evaluation in the Classroom" (L. Gentile); "An Analysis of Linguistic and Comprehension Strategies of Low Ability Readers" (V. Risko); "College Reading Programs 1958-1978" (A. Mallery); "Developmental Reading Program Innovations and Practices at the University of Cincinnati" (T. Bullock and D. Madden); "Guidelines and Practices of Evaluation of State Reading Programs" (P. Smith and S. Rebottini); "Teacher Perceptions of Microcomputer Courses" (P. Ransom); "Evaluation of Variations among Reading Improvement Students through Three Decades" (M. Harshbarger); "A Comparison of Parent and Teacher Perceptions of Student Behaviors" (J. Williams); "Evaluating Perceptions of Learners at Different Levels" (D. Lumpkin); "Research in Teaching Context Clues" (J. Elliott); "Reading Inventories of the Future" (W. Henk with a reaction by L. Tomlinson); "The Cloze Reading Inventory as a Qualitative and Quantitative Measure of Reading Ability" (R. DeSanti with a reaction by C. Stice); "Content Reading" (R. Telfer); "Preliminary Development of a Screening Instrument for Learning Disabilities" (C. Cloer, Jr.); "The Mandate: Evaluation of Teacher Candidates by Use of Competency Tests" (R. Flipppo); "How Effective Are Quantitative Teacher Evaluations?" (B. Herrmann); "Evaluation of a Reading Program" (B. Wise and J. Shaver); "Students' Perceptions of Their Study Habits" (B. Townsend); "Evaluation of Learning Disabled College Students" (K. Norlander and others); "Reading and Learning: The Learning Abilities of Three Types of Poor Readers" (R. Bloomer and others with a reaction by R. Flipppo); "Ethnographic Research on Junior Great Books" (N. Boraks and others); "Evaluating Materials" (M. Collins); "Evaluation of Teaching with Discussion" (D. Alvermann); "New Ways to Use Student Writing Samples in Reading Diagnosis" (P. Duncan). References for each article are included.

Magliaro, Susan G. and Hilda Borko. "A Naturalistic Investigation of Experienced Teachers' and Student Teachers' Instructional Practices," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (69th, Chicago, IL, March 31-April 4, 1985), 30 p. [ED 261 999]

This study examined the relationships among reading activities, rules for pupil participation, student engagement, and subsequent student achievement in reading lessons taught by student teachers (ST) and experienced teachers (ET). Two ST/ET dyads were observed and interviewed while they instructed third and fourth grade pupils in reading. The teachers in one dyad had similar participation structures; however, their subsequent student engagement and student achievement were differ-

ent. While the participation structures of the second dyad differed, student engagement and achievement were alike. The contrasts between dyads indicated different levels of ability between the two student teachers. The differential effectiveness of the student teachers suggests that several factors may play important, interrelated roles in determining the success of novice teachers' reading instruction. The difference between these student teachers seemed to be explained best by their conceptions of their roles as student teachers, and the influence these conceptions had on their choice of participation structures and reading activities and their ability to implement these choices. These differences suggest that student teachers progress at different rates in the process of learning to teach.

Magliaro, Susan G. and Hilda Borko. "A Naturalistic Investigation of Experienced Teachers' and Student Teachers' Instructional Practices," *Teaching and Teacher Education*, v2 n2 1986, p127-37. [EJ 344 610]

A naturalistic investigation was conducted to describe the relationships among participation structures, reading activities, student engagement, and subsequent student achievement in reading lessons taught by student teachers and experienced teachers. Results are presented.

McDaid, Janet L. and Kate S. Murty. *Equity in Student Placement and Reading Instruction at First Grade: A Descriptive Study*. San Diego City Schools, CA: Planning, Research and Evaluation Division, 1989. [ED 305 414]

This report evaluates student placement practices and quality of instruction in the first grade reading program of the San Diego (California) City Schools. A previous study indicated that a disproportionately high percentage of Black and Hispanic students did not complete the grade-level textbook by the end of the first grade. Data were drawn from classroom observations, teacher interviews, and student records in four selected schools and from meetings with a district-wide Teachers' Advisory Committee. The constant comparative method of hypothesis testing was followed so analysis could occur at the same time as the data were being gathered. The main conclusion is that by following the basal reader textbook almost exclusively and placing students into achievement groups the reading program may not be providing all first grade students equal opportunities to receive the highest quality reading instruction. Students with low-level reading skills need more time and assistance than they receive to become successful readers. An important secondary finding is that first-year teachers reported difficulty with pacing instruction and covering the prescribed material. Recommendations for staff action are discussed. The appendices include copies of the following data-gathering tools: (1) Student Placement in Basal Reader Observation Form; (2) Elementary Reading Textbook Assignment Record; and (3) Basic Category Codings of Teachers' Interview Responses and Behavioral Sequences from Classroom Observations. A list of 15 references is appended.



McKinney, C. Warren and others. "The Effectiveness of Three Methods of Teaching Social Studies Concepts to Fourth-Grade Students: An Aptitude-Treatment Interaction Study," *American Educational Research Journal*, v20 n4 Winter 1983, p663-70. [EJ 294 201]

The effectiveness of three methods for teaching social studies concepts were examined. The techniques were Merrill and Tennyson's model, Gagne's model, and reading-recitation. Student achievement was assessed for each method. Results indicated definitions and both examples and nonexamples facilitate concept acquisition.

Medley, Donald M. and Homer Coker. "The Accuracy of Principals' Judgments of Teacher Performance," *Journal of Educational Research*, v80 n4 March-April 1987, p242-47. [EJ 354 931]

Examination of the accuracy of principals' judgments of teacher performance as predictors of teacher effectiveness revealed positive correlations in three teacher roles and students' gains in arithmetic and reading.

Mohr, Marian M. and Marion S. MacLean. "Working Together: A Guide for Teacher-Researchers." EDRS: 1987, 142 p. [ED 285 196]

Noting that raising standards for teaching is a key to education reform, this guide outlines a tested plan for helping practicing teachers upgrade and fine-tune their own performance by systematically studying their own classroom methods and the student learning that results. Following an introduction, the guide discusses research group organization and procedures, including research logs and readings. The guide then explores classroom research practice and process, specifically, emergent research questions, observation and reflection, data collection, analysis and interpretation, implications, and research reports and group publication. Next, the guide addresses research issues and complexities: teacher-researcher role tension and validity and reliability. Finally, the guide presents research reports from group publications as follows: (1) "I Think It Has Something to Do with Our Minds': Using Synectics to Learn about History" (Leslie A. Gray); (2) "What Happens When Mickey Writes? Reading between the Lines" (Alberta Grossman); (3) "A Teacher-Researcher Writes about Learning" (Courtney Rogers); (4) "Discovering Revision" (Betsy Sanford); (5) "Reading for Meaning: Trying to Get Past First Basal" (Mary Schulman); and (6) "What Happens When Eleventh- and Twelfth-Grade Students Do More Than Sit and Listen? A Proposal for Classroom Research on Operative Learning" (Ann Sevcik). Appendixes contain a sample course outline, sample course description, and sample research proposal outline.

Myers, Miles. "When Research Does Not Help Teachers," *American Educator: The Professional Journal of the American Federation of Teachers*, v10 n2 Summer 1986, p18-23. [EJ 338 412]

Argues that teacher effectiveness depends upon classroom social interactions, the functional use of subjects and knowledge, and recognition of students' under-

standing. Discusses four examples of how potentially useful research on teaching was misapplied in practice: direct instruction, time on task, the Chicago Mastery Learning Program, and sequence of reading skills.

Nader, Jeannette Abl. "Talking to Learn: Integrating Classroom Talk with Academic Content for Motivating Hispanic High School Students," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New Orleans, LA, April 5-9, 1988), 14 p. [ED 296 065]

A teacher's interaction with Hispanic high school students enrolled in Program for Learning in Accordance with Needs (PLAN), a college preparation program designed to develop the basic skills--reading, writing, and public speaking--needed to succeed in college, was observed. The following implicit instructional goals of PLAN were revealed: (1) creating a vision of the future; (2) redefining the participants' self-image; and (3) building a supportive community. These goals were supported through a network of teacher behaviors, particularly sociolinguistic strategies imbedded in the teacher's speech, which wove the cultural characteristics of Hispanic students with academic content in an environment that encouraged learning. PLAN's success may be partially attributable to the strategic use of language in motivating students. The instructional goals and the strategies used to implement them are illustrated on an accompanying handout. A brief bibliography is included.

Ney, James W. "Teacher-Student Cooperative Learning in the Freshman Writing Course." EDRS: 1989, 32 p. [ED 312 659]

This study examined the effectiveness of a cooperative learning model for the teaching of Freshman English at the college level. The model involved student presentations based on assigned readings from the texts, nine compositions and daily quizzes on the reading material, and peer grading of the daily quizzes as well as mid-term and final exams, which included spot checking by the instructor for accuracy of grading. Weekly attitudinal surveys revealed a positive perception of students on the whole toward the conduct of the class. Results further indicated that the disciplined structure of the model produced in the students better mastery of the subject matter and led to better classroom attendance.

Niles, Jerome A. and Larry A. Harris, Eds. "New Inquiries in Reading Research and Instruction. Thirty-First Yearbook of the National Reading Conference," Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (31st, Dallas, TX, December 2-5, 1981). National Reading Conference, 1982, 324 p. [ED 264 542]

Reflecting an intensified concern for good educational research on instruction, the papers in this collection demonstrate the growing awareness of and sensitivity to the classroom environment by reading researchers. The 51 articles, selected from those presented at the 1981 meeting of the National Reading Conference, are divided into the following categories: (1) research on reading instruction; (2) reading compre-



hension: learning and instruction; (3) comprehension: vocabulary; (4) beginning reading; (5) research and measurement concerns; (6) teacher effectiveness; (7) review of research on technology and reading instruction; (8) story structure; and (9) writing. The collection concludes with the complete list of conference papers from the 1981 meeting.

Nowacek, Jane and Shari Saunders. "A Case Study of an Effective "Teacher in a Suburban Mainstreamed Classroom," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, CA, March 27-31, 1989), 30 p. [ED 309 158]

This tightly focused profile of an exceptionally able elementary school teacher includes background material on her youth and early years in teaching as well as an in-depth analysis of her teaching methods and relationships with students. Videotapes of her classroom performance and retrospective interviews were used to obtain information. An outstanding teacher in many areas of elementary education, she was particularly effective with mainstreamed children with reading difficulties. Eight themes were identified in her interactions with her students: (1) concepts made visually concrete; (2) frequent questioning; (3) student helpfulness to peers encouraged; (4) independent thinking praised; (5) self-concept of students promoted; (6) student responsibility for active participation in classroom encouraged; (7) structured rules and routines; and (8) nonverbal behavior used for maximizing instructional time and/or student attention.

Palincsar, Annemarie Sullivan. "Interactive Cognition to Promote Listening Comprehension," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (67th, San Francisco, CA, April 16-20, 1986), 23 p. [ED 278 000]

A study examined whether scaffolding (the interaction that emerges when novices and experts work cooperatively) can be extended if the scaffolding model for facilitating problem-solving instruction is imposed. Eight teachers were instructed and coached in the use of scaffolding to teach first graders listening comprehension skills. When a group of eight teachers was introduced to reciprocal teaching (teaching in which there is a dialog between teacher and students as well as among students, and in which students take turns assuming the role of teacher) within the scaffolded instruction framework (all having received the same preparation), they varied considerably in the manner in which they applied their skills. Each teacher read expository passages to her students (six per group) that were written at a third grade level. Two sample sets of dialogue are given; what distinguishes the two examples is that one teacher supported the students at a "word level" while the other supported them at an "idea level." An examination of the transcripts of the classes also showed that some teachers relied more on instructional statements, others on prompting statements, still others on reinforcing statements. These statements were evaluated against the contributions of the students to elicit an instructional profile. (Copies of dialogues and tables of data are included.)

Palincsar, Annemarie Sullivan. "Reciprocal Teaching: Working within the Zone of Proximal Development," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (68th, New Orleans, LA, April 23-27, 1984), 22 p. [ED 246 385]

A study compared the effectiveness of four instructional procedures designed to teach four strategies: summarizing, question generating, clarifying, and predicting. The four procedures were (1) reciprocal teaching/corrective feedback, which requires that initially the teacher do a considerable amount of instruction about and modeling of the four strategies using dialogue with the students; as the days of instruction proceed, the students are given more responsibility for initiating and sustaining the dialogue while the teacher guides this practice, using modeling and corrective feedback specific to each student; (2) reciprocal teaching/practice, identical to the procedure just described, with the exception that after the first four days, students continue to practice the strategies by writing summaries, questions, points to be clarified, and predictions on assigned segments of text, while teacher feedback is minimal; (3) demonstration, which requires the teacher to demonstrate each strategy; and (4) treated control, in which the students are given worksheet activities regarding the four strategies. Subjects were seventh grade students in developmental reading classes. All groups used the same materials. Results indicated that the most effective of the four instructional procedures was reciprocal teaching with corrective feedback, followed by reciprocal teaching with practice, and the control treatment. The findings suggest the importance of such instructional components as the need to work within the zone of proximal development (the "region of sensitivity to instruction") and to use a scaffolded and proleptic approach (transfer of responsibility for learning from teacher to student). (Examples of reciprocal teaching dialogue are appended.)

Patching, William and others. "Direct Instruction in Critical Reading Skills," *Reading Research Quarterly*, v18 n4 Summer 1983, p406-18. [EJ 285 209]

Results of a study that compared three instructional methods in teaching critical reading skills indicate that students performed better after direct instruction than after either using a workbook with corrective feedback or having no teacher intervention.

Putnam, Joyce and Gerald G. Duffy. "The Subtleties and Complexities of Instructional Explanation in Reading: A Case Study of an Expert," *Research Series*, No. 155 1984, 34 p. [ED 255 884]

Designed to determine what characterizes effective instructional explanation in reading, the study involved reading instruction of four reading groups and one child in a third/fourth grade classroom in the fall, and two groups plus one child the remainder of the academic year. The research was observed 32 times during the year; field notes were taken and lessons were audio tape recorded and/or video recorded and then transcribed. Answers were sought for the following research questions: (1) What characterizes the research participant's explanations during read-

ing instruction? (2) What characterizes the teacher-student interactions during the research participant's instruction? (3) How were the lessons organized? (4) Is there any evidence regarding the effectiveness of explanation in creating student outcomes? Results of the study have provided rich descriptive data to conceptualize the nature of instructional explanation, including three aspects of instructional explanation that go beyond a simple concept of expository teacher talk. Data revealed no relationship between instruction and student gains, and a disparity between what the research participant did when explaining as a practicing teacher and the way he conceptualized explanation behavior for his methods-course students. The findings suggest that instruction is much more complex than models, opinion, or much of the previous research have indicated, and that theoretical models of instruction have little or no reliability as far as identification of essential and critical variables.

Rawers, Lois J. "Profiles of Elementary Excellence," *OSSC Bulletin*, v27 n6 Feb 1984, 31 p. [ED 242 064]

Profiled in this report are three Oregon first-grade teachers--the state's 1984 Teacher of the Year and two other finalists for that title. Distinguishing characteristics of the teaching approach of Jonelle Maurer of the Lincoln Elementary School in Grants Pass include phonics and group reading instruction, the use of activity centers, and a developmental skills device known as the "Brown Cupboard." LaNaya Ritson, of Eugene's McCormack Elementary School, makes use of a parent aide and rotating schoolwide P.E., music, and library periods to divide her class into three groups. Ritson also maintains contact with parents through weekly student work packets. The teaching of Tualatin Elementary School's Evelyn Andrews, Oregon's 1984 Teacher of the Year, is characterized by enthusiastic encouragement to students in and beyond the classroom and by an emphasis on the "real-world relevance" of learning activities. All three teachers share warm concern for their students and the ability to keep track of several activities simultaneously. They also utilize instructional time well, work with students beyond school time, provide positive reinforcement, set high expectations for their students, encourage responsibility and independent thinking, and involve themselves in educational affairs beyond their own classrooms.

Readence, John E. and R. Scott Baldwin, Eds. *Dialogues in Literacy Research. Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Reading Conference*. National Reading Conference, Inc., 1988. [ED 300 773]

Concentrating on theoretical perspectives on reading, writing and language research, this yearbook contains 33 articles which cover the politics of literacy, emergent and early literacy, vocabulary, comprehension, content area reading, writing, and teacher effectiveness. Articles include: (1) "Tomorrow's Readers Today: Becoming a Profession of Collaborative Learners" (Jerome C. Harste); (2) "Storytelling, Reading, and the Micropolitics of Literacy" (Ron Scollon); (3) "Young Children's Explanations of Spaces between Words in Written Text" (Beth R. Spencer and Peter P. Afflerbach); (4) "Transitional Knowledge in Emergent Literacy" (George Kamberelis and Elizabeth Sulzby); (5) "First Graders' Perceptions of Reading and

Writing" (Alice Boljonis and Kathleen Hinchman); (6) "Sixth Graders' Use of Mnemonic Imagery in Recalling Content Material" (Nancy L. Williams and Bonnie C. Konopacki); (7) "The Effects of an Elaborated Directed Reading Activity on the Metacomprehension Skills of Third Graders" (Maribeth Cassidy Schmitt); (8) "Carl: A Case Study of Executive Control in a Gifted Adolescent Reader" (Elizabeth E. Sparks); (9) "Enhancing Children's Comprehension through Previewing" (Susan B. Neuman); (10) "Extended Wait-Time and Its Effect on the Listening Comprehension of Kindergarten Students" (Marilyn J. McKay); (11) "The Development of Teacher Explanations during Content Reading Lessons" (Mark W. Conley and Scott Warren); (12) "How Ethnographers of Communication Study Writing in School" (Susan Florio-Ruane); (13) "Peer Conferences as Social Contexts for Learning about Revision" (Karen L. Dahl); (14) "An Exploratory Study of Preservice Teachers' Evolving Knowledge Structures" (Beth Ann Herrmann); and (15) "The Relationship between Preservice Teachers' Evolving Instruction of Reading and Their Emerging Conceptions of Reading" (Janet Johnson). The program for the 1987 National Reading Conference is appended.

Reck, Carleen. "Small Catholic Elementary Schools: An Endangered Species?" ERIC Digest, 1987. [ED 296 815]

Although the existence of small Catholic elementary schools (enrollment: 300 or less) is precarious, these institutions enable students to succeed academically beyond national norms, due to the special learning environment that they provide. The recent Small Schools Survey of Catholic elementary schools indicated that classes in small Catholic schools scored exceptionally well in all of the basic learning areas: reading, mathematics, reference skills. This achievement has important implications for the viability of other very small schools, be they private, religious, or public, and supports other educational research showing that size alone does not indicate the quality of a school. Principals whose small Catholic elementary schools modeled above average academic achievement reported that the academic advantages of small schools due to low teacher-to-pupil ratios included: use of more varied materials and tasks, higher levels of thinking due to more demanding assignments, increased opportunities for participation, formulation of better study habits, community support and greater opportunities for leadership. Team concept, priorities, skill organization, planning for content subjects, an interdisciplinary approach, and instructional assistance were cited as effective elements in school-wide organization, and knowledge of key concepts and skills, individualization, and room arrangement contributed to effective teaching. Reasons for school failures and ideas for generating support are included.

Reutzel, D. Ray. "Interviewing: How to Hire a Good Classroom Teacher of Reading," *Reading Teacher*, v37 n2 Nov 1983, p122-217. [EJ 288 031]

Argues that to improve a reading program, administrators need to hire teachers who know what's involved in good reading instruction. Provides a sample interview of a prospective teacher and a list of useful interview questions, all based on research into what makes reading instruction effective.

Roehler, Laura R. and others. "A Descriptive Study of Teacher Explanation: A Final Report of the 1983-84 Study," *Research Studies*, No. 170 1986, 86 p. [ED 273 931]

Conducted as the third in a series of four investigations of teacher explanation of reading skills, a study examined the relationship between explicit teacher explanation and student awareness of lesson content and reading achievement gains. Subjects were seven fifth-grade teachers and their respective low-reading ability groups. The teachers were taught how to modify basal text prescriptions for a particular skill so that students would learn to use it as a strategy for discovering meaning rather than as a memorization exercise. In addition, the teachers were taught how to organize and structure a lesson so that students were explicitly introduced to a skill, had a model to follow, and were guided in applying it in a "real text." Data were collected by means of audiotapes of lessons and teachers' perceptions of the training they had received, student interviews, and pretests and posttests of student achievement. Results support earlier findings that teachers can be trained to be more explicit in their explanations and that such explicitness is related to improved student awareness of lesson content. As in earlier studies, however, no significant improvement was found in student achievement. Materials used in the training program and study are provided in seven appendixes making up the greater part of the document. Materials include rating forms, interview protocols, criterion measures, and a graded oral reading paragraph test.

Roehler, Laura R. and Gerald G. Duffy. "What Makes One Teacher a Better Explainer than Another," *Journal of Education for Teaching*, v12 n3 1986, p273-84. [EJ 344 624]

Using Vygotsky's concept of mediated development, a study was designed to determine the effectiveness of what teachers say during instruction in reading skills. Twenty-two teachers were observed five times and their students interviewed to discover student awareness of the use of strategies in reading. Results are explored.

Roehler, Laura R. and others. "Teacher Explanation during Reading Instruction: A Technical Report of the 1982-83 Study," *Research Series*, No. 158, 1985, 136 p. [ED 261 353]

Twenty-two fifth-grade teachers participated in a study designed to determine whether, given typical basal text material and the opportunity to learn, the more effective classroom teachers of reading would be those who provided explicit explanations on how to use reading skills strategically when reading. The treatment group of teachers was trained in how to explain to low reading groups what strategies could be used, when they should be used, and how to apply them. The control group participated in a workshop on effective classroom management. Subsequently, the low-group reading instruction of each treatment and control teacher was observed four times at one month intervals. Students were pretested and posttested with the Gates-McGinitie Reading Achievement Test. Results suggested that teachers were



able to incorporate explanatory talk into their lessons and that this talk resulted in greater student awareness. However, no achievement gains were found. Qualitative analysis of the explanations of teachers who were more and less effective in creating awareness outcomes resulted in the identification of distinguishing descriptive characteristics of effective explanation and suggested reasons why some teachers were not more effective. (Copies of materials used in the study are appended.)

Roehler, Laura R. and others. "Training Teachers for Instructional Change in Reading: A Descriptive Study," *Research Series*, No. 143, 1984, 24 p. [ED 243 079]

Teacher training sessions were examined to determine why four teachers receiving the same training in implementing explanation behavior in reading instruction differed in the success with which they carried out the new strategies. Audiotaped training sessions, trainer self-reports, and teacher interviews were qualitatively analyzed to identify the characteristics of successful teacher change. Results revealed three major differences between the training of the one successful and the three unsuccessful teachers: (1) while the other trainers only gave oral and written explanations, the successful teacher's trainer both emphasized the thinking a teacher must go through when planning and implementing a lesson and demonstrated the selected behaviors; (2) unlike the others, this trainer provided training through the actual implementation of instructional strategies and gradually diminished his as the teacher adjusted his instructional behavior; and (3) the successful teacher's trainer modeled aloud the thinking a teacher must do to plan and implement the process. (The criteria for evaluating instructional communication is appended.)

Ross, Dorene Doerre and Diane Wells Kyle. "Helping Preservice Teachers Learn to Use Teacher Effectiveness Research," *Journal of Teacher Education*, v38 n2 Mar-Apr 1987, p40-44. [EJ 353 252]

Teacher effectiveness research is presented within the context of research about the teaching of reading in an effort to guide preservice teachers to make deliberate judgments in selecting instructional strategies from conflicting research findings. Suggestions for teacher educators are offered.

Rupley, William H. "Reading Teacher Effectiveness: Implications for Teaching the Gifted," *Roeper Review*, v7 n2 Nov. 1984, p70-72. [EJ 311 880]

Research on teacher effectiveness in reading instruction is reviewed and implications for gifted students are noted for four areas: reading diagnosis, teacher-directed instruction, opportunities to learn and practice, and engagement in learning.

Rupley, William H. and Beth S. Wise. "Methodological and Data Analysis Limitations in Teacher Effectiveness Research: Threats to the External Validity of Significant Findings," *Journal of Reading Education*, v10 n1 Fall 1984, p8-18. [EJ 313 480]

Notes that major changes have occurred in the factors investigated and the data collection procedures employed in teacher effectiveness research and that the generalizability of significant findings continues to be limited by methodological and experimental design problems.

Rupley, William H. and Timothy R. Blair. "Assignment and Supervision of Reading Seatwork: Looking in on 12 Primary Teachers," *Reading Teacher*, v40 n4 Jan. 1987, p391-93. [EJ 345 143]

Compares the literature on teacher effectiveness with observations of 12 primary grade teachers, noting areas where teachers may be missing opportunities to make seatwork more effective.

Sandby Thomas, Mary. "The Organization of Reading and Pupil Attainment," *Journal of Research in Reading*, v6 n1 Feb 1983, p29-40. [EJ 279 308]

Reveals a clear relationship between teachers' aims and objectives and choice of class organization and that pupils taught in classes in which reading is heard in groups achieve higher reading standards than do those taught individually. Shows also the effects of time on the quality of instruction.

Schaudt, Barbara A. "The Use of Computers in a Direct Instruction Reading Lesson," *Reading Psychology*, v8 n3 1987, p169-78. [EJ 362 182]

Contends that the addition of the microcomputer as a learning tool may enhance student learning and increase teacher effectiveness using the direct instruction approach. Discusses patterns associated with teacher effectiveness, practical application of the direct instruction model, and the incorporation of computer assisted instruction into a direct instruction plan.

Schroeder, Loren. "Interview: Reading Comprehension Instruction: The Good, the Bad, and the All-Important Teacher," *Wisconsin State Reading Association Journal*, v31 n2 Winter 1987, p15-22. [EJ 371 791]

Presents an interview with reading researcher James F. Bauman, Associate Professor at Purdue University. Discusses research findings which indicate that there are identifiable teacher behaviors and instructional environments that promote learning, and that reading comprehension skills can be taught. Discusses implications of findings for practitioners, emphasizing the importance of an intelligent, caring teacher.



Shanklin, Nancy L. "Improving the Comprehension of At-Risk Readers: An Ethnographic Study of Four Chapter 1 Teachers, Grades 4-6," *Journal of Reading, Writing, and Learning Disabilities International*, v6 n2 Apr-June 1990, p137-48. [EJ 411 823]

The ethnographic study of four successful intermediate-level resource teachers working with high-risk urban children found similarities in their instruction of reading comprehension (e.g., using activities personally meaningful to the child) and changing students' miscue patterns. Significant differences also emerged, as well as nonuse of some instructional approaches recommended by leading reading educators.

Sheerer, Marilyn A. "An Ethnographic Investigation of Chauncey Elementary School." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, CA, March 27-April 1, 1989).

An ethnographic investigation of interrelationships between teacher efficacy attitudes, teacher behavior, students' performance, and organizational climate in a total school setting was conducted at Chauncey Elementary School in Athens, Ohio. Chauncey was studied because its teachers had begun to implement an open classroom model which promoted a democratic decision-making process; had taken a position against the Athens City School District regarding the purchase of basal readers; and were actively advocating a literature-based reading program for primary grades. Questions guiding the inquiry included: (1) What was going on at Chauncey that supported innovative activity by teachers? (2) What kind of climate and organizational framework encouraged the innovative classroom activity? (3) What effect did the pattern of instruction and organizational control have on the teachers' sense of effectiveness and performance in class? (4) How was it that these particular teachers were working to bring about change? (5) Did these teachers differ significantly in socioeconomic terms from their colleagues in more traditional schools, or from the parents of the Chauncey children? and (6) What were the social relations among teachers, administrators, and students? Results concerning educational innovation are discussed.

Sheldon, Susan A. "Comparison of Two Teaching Methods for Reading Comprehension," *Journal of Research in Reading*, v7 n1 Feb 1984, p41-52. [EJ 297 940]

Concludes that elementary school children taught with a technique involving nonverbal restructuring made significant reading gains over those taught with a question-answer method.

Sindelar, Paul T. and others. "Teacher Effectiveness in Special Education Programs," *Journal of Special Education*, v20 n2 Summer 1986, p195-207. [EJ 342 643]

Based on response categories of the Classroom Activity Recording Form, instructional behaviors of 30 teachers of mildly retarded and learning disabled elemen-

tary students (N+122) were used to predict reading achievement gain on the California Achievement Test. Time spent in teacher questioning was the single best predictor of achievement gain.

Smith, Eugene. "Conducting a Follow-Up Study of Students in Writing Courses," 1984, 17 p. [ED 247 596]

Recognizing the need to assess the long term effects of composition instruction, a study was conducted to determine whether students could remember significant aspects of a writing course up to two years later, to discern their assessment of the effects of the course on their subsequent writing attitudes, and to solicit suggestions based on students' cumulative experiences with writing and instruction for improving writing courses. The study involved 11 students ranging from freshmen to seniors with majors in several fields, including English. Each had taken an intermediate or advanced course in expository writing taught by the researcher. An interview and spontaneous writing session was conducted with each of the subjects. As a tool for evaluating the long term effectiveness of writing instruction, this method proved successful. When asked to explain the invention techniques used to begin their most recent piece of finished writing, subjects mentioned freewriting, brainstorming, and outlining. Only three people mentioned the response of another person as an important dimension of their revising processes. Self-help tactics included reading aloud and handwriting or even printing a second draft. The most often cited effects of the writing course were more structured writing habits, better self-discipline, increased curiosity about writing and its capability for self-development, and an enhanced appreciation of the effects of audience awareness. Writing samples tended to confirm or elaborate upon oral responses.

Southgate, Vera and others. "Extending Beginning Reading," Schools Council, London (England), 1981, 372 p. [ED 263 543]

Extending Beginning Reading was a research project based at the School of Education, University of Manchester, England, from September 1973 to December 1977. The project, aimed at helping readers seven years and older improve their reading skills, is detailed in this book, in which most of the seven sections contain implications for teachers. The book begins with background information on the project. Part 2 discusses the questions to which the research was directed, such as, What is reading? How do children learn to read? What skills are used in reading? and, What can the teacher do to help? Part 3 contains the teachers' viewpoints, including their preferred outcomes of the project and their aims and objectives. Part 4 emphasizes the growing importance of the reading environment and investigates this environment in eight schools. Part 5 deals with teachers of reading, including their estimates of children's reading ability, the books they use, their methods, their encouragement and training of children to use reading skills, and the results of their guidance on children's book choices. Part 6 discusses children as readers, including what children think about reading, children's views on books, reading and related assessments, and strategies children use in reading (miscue analysis and the cloze

procedure). Part 7 presents the main project findings and recommendations for a more effective reading program. The appendixes contain materials used in the project, including tables of findings and lists of related publications.

Stallings, Jane. "Effective Use of Classroom Time," summary and proceedings of a 1984 Regional Exchange Workshop, 1984, 47 p. [ED 251 973]

Beginning with general observations on the human element in excellent teaching that often goes unnoticed by researchers, this speaker provides a wide range of suggestions for making more effective use of class time. These suggestions pertain to monitoring time on and off task, classroom organization and planning, making assignments, clarifying expectations, improving distribution of materials, assigning seats, grouping students vs. working with individuals, working with groups, rules for behavior, interactive instruction, reviewing, organizing information, checking for understanding, reteaching, oral reading, summarizing, establishing a supportive environment, and monitoring student outcomes. A summary lists the advantages and disadvantages of some major teaching strategies: lecture, discussion, drill and practice, independent study, group investigation, laboratory approach, discovery, the learning center, simulation, behavior modification, performance-based learning activity packages, and "do-look-learn" (teacher-guided, small group instruction). References and handouts are included.

Stallings, Jane A. "Effective Use of Time in Secondary Reading Classrooms," *Reports Research* (143), 1984 38 p. [ED 246 393]

During the first phase of a three-phase study of teaching basic reading skills in the secondary schools, 43 secondary-school reading classrooms were observed for three days, and the relationships between teaching processes and students' gains in reading were examined. Data were recorded with the Secondary Observation Instrument, and the Classroom Environment Scale was used to obtain students' perceptions of the instructional process. Student reading achievement scores and absence rates were also recorded. Analyses of the data indicated that (1) teacher reinforcement of correct responses and guidance for incorrect responses were positively related to reading achievement gains; (2) the frequency of reading-related verbal interactions, including interactive instruction and oral reading, positively related to achievement; (3) the number of social interactions and off-task behaviors that occurred during the class had a negative relationship to achievement; and (4) a relationship existed between positive affect recorded in the classroom and student absence rates, with lower student absence rates associated with more positive and supportive classroom environments. Furthermore, greater gains in reading achievement were associated with these environments.

Staton, Jana, Ed., and others. "Dialogue, Volume 3 Nos. 1-4, December 1985-December 1986," *Dialogue*, v3 n1-4 Dec 1985-Dec 1986. [ED 279 202]

These four issues of a bulletin on the use of dialogue journals in foreign language teaching include these articles: "Dialogue Journals and Reading Compre-

hension"; "Secret Messages: Dialogue Journals as a Reading Event"; "The Teacher's Writing as Text"; "Using Dialogue Journals in Reading Classes"; "Effective Teacher Change: A Focus on the Individual"; "ESL Teachers as Language Advocates for Children"; "'Sheltered English' Applied to Writing"; "Writing and Reflecting on Writing"; "Making Language Connections: Writing in ESL Pull-Out Classes"; "Using Dialogue Journals to Develop a Discourse-Based Performance Measure"; a review of "Teacher Strategies: Linguistic Devices for Sustaining Interaction" (a dissertation); "'How Is Your Weekend and What Did You Do': Second Language Learners' Understanding of Audience"; "The Dialogue Journal and Migrant Education"; "Features of Semi-Literate Writing: One Student's Development"; "Using Dialogue Journals for a More Meaningful Cultural Orientation Class"; "Moving Students from Frozen to More Creative Language Use"; "Yes, Teacher, There Is Hope!"; "A Principal's View of Dialogue Journals"; "The Safety Valve"; "Dialogue in Marketing Education"; "Time--The Greatest Gift"; "Research on Teacher Strategies: Exploring the Effects of Glib Responses to Journal Entries"; "Mapping Conversational Roles"; and "Interactive Writing with Computers: One Solution to the Time Problem." Recent publications and notes from the field are also included.

Stern, Paula and Richard J. Shavelson. "Reading Teachers' Judgments, Plans, and Decision Making," *Reading Teacher* v37 n3 p280-86 Dec 1983. [ED 289 461]

Summarizes research concerning how teachers' judgments, instructional planning, and interactive decision making affect their classroom actions, particularly in reading instruction. Discusses implications for reading teachers.

"Teacher Characteristics and Teacher Education in Reading and English Language Arts Instruction," abstracts of doctoral dissertations published in *Dissertation Abstracts International*, v44 nos.7-12 Jan.-June 1984, 14 p. [ED 245 212]

This collection of abstracts is part of a continuing series providing information on recent doctoral dissertations. The 22 titles deal with a variety of topics, including the following: (1) classroom models of the teaching of English; (2) the design, development, and field testing of a technique to measure the effectiveness of adult education instructors in managing their verbal communication of intent when establishing the instructor/learner relationship; (3) perceptions of the place of college reading instruction among faculty members in four-year colleges; (4) instructional effects of text structure-based reading strategies on the comprehension of scientific prose; (5) diagnostic reading test interpretation by reading teachers; (6) the effects of inservice reading training on teacher strategies and student performance in an occupational training program; (7) teacher knowledge of spelling research and instructional methods of spelling ability; (8) teacher attitudes toward learning disabled elementary school pupils as related to reading achievement; (9) innovative practices of language arts teachers; (10) factors contributing to teachers' decision making

policies associated with effective reading instruction; and (11) principals' knowledge of reading concepts.

**"Teacher Characteristics and Teacher Education in Reading and English Language Arts Instruction,"** abstracts of doctoral dissertations published in *Dissertation Abstracts International*, v45 nos.7-12 Jan-June 1985, 11 p. [ED 259 315]

This collection of abstracts is part of a continuing series providing information on recent doctoral dissertations. The 16 titles deal with a variety of topics including the following: (1) a descriptive survey of the attitudes and perceptions of speech communication faculty concerning computers and computer assisted instruction; (2) a planned course reading component; (3) practical knowledge of language in teaching; (4) an investigation of reading specialists in education; (5) reading teachers' reactions to a field test of a computer assisted instruction reading program; (6) secondary English methods courses; (7) the relation of the elementary school principal to the improvement of reading; (8) the influence of oral language transactions on developing literacy; (9) the socialization of beginning elementary school teachers; (10) an analysis of secondary teachers' conceptions of reading; (11) the effects of using an instruction strategy based on schema theory; (12) the effect of a feedback system on teacher performance in writing conferences; (13) teacher feedback and practices during guided oral reading; and (14) the attitudes of non-English faculty toward the teaching of writing.

**Teale, William H. and Miriam Martinez.** "Teachers Reading to Their Students: Different Styles, Different Effects?" paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Regional Conference of the International Reading Association (14th, San Antonio, TX, January 30-February 1, 1986), 18 p. [ED 269 754]

A survey of 14 leading language arts, children's literature, and reading methods books, as well as professional journal articles and other notable books on reading to children, yielded a total of eight recommendations made by more than half of the authors, including the following: (1) prepare by previewing the book, (2) read with expression, (3) observe and encourage children's responses, and (4) allow time for discussion after reading. However, recent observations of kindergarten teachers reading to their students suggest that these recommendations do not say enough to teachers and teacher educators about the "how" of storybook reading. Observations and transcripts of two kindergarten teachers reading aloud the same book were analyzed in light of the eight recommendations for effective storybook reading. The results did not distinguish between the two teachers. A deeper analysis of the teacher talk, however, indicated differences as well as similarities between the two readings. The amount of talk by teacher B was greater than that of teacher M overall, as well as before and during the reading, but not in the discussion after the reading. Teacher B focused much more upon asking inferential questions than did teacher M, who focused twice on the episode which contained the theme of the story, while teacher B's focus was broader, giving attention to many aspects of the story. While teacher



M's talk concentrated mainly on the moral of the story, teacher R can better be characterized as focusing on thinking skills.

Tracz, Susan M. and Sherri Gibson. "Effects of Efficacy on Academic Achievement," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the California Educational Research Association (Marina del Rey, CA, November 13-14, 1986), 8 p. [ED 281 853]

Teacher efficacy is a critical variable in teacher and school effectiveness. The Teacher Efficacy Scale was used to assess teacher efficacy and investigate its relationship to teacher use of time, student time on task, and student achievement. Classroom observations were gathered from 14 teachers, grades 4-6, at two schools. Teacher allocation of time, student engagement, and student achievement were measured. Means and standard deviations and correlations among variables for teacher efficacy, teacher academic focus, student engagement rates and achievement were derived. Personal teaching efficacy (level of confidence in personal teaching abilities) correlated positively with reading achievement and whole class instruction and negatively with small group instruction. Teaching efficacy (general expectation of student success) correlated significantly with language and mathematics achievement. This study supports the contention that a teacher's sense of efficacy is significantly related to classroom grouping of students and to student achievement outcomes.

Vocke, David E. and Amos Hahn. "What Does Reading Research Say to Social Studies Teachers?" *Social Education*: September 1989, v53 n5 p323-26. [EJ 398 341]

Cites numerous research studies stating that the textbook remains the dominant tool in social studies, causing a low regard for the subject by many students. Looks at reading research to provide instructional procedures that social studies teachers can employ to enhance students' understanding of the written materials they encounter.

Watson, Dorothy J. and others. "Two Approaches to Reading: Whole-Language and Skills," paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Reading Association (29th., Atlanta, GA, May 6-10, 1984), 42 p. [ED 247 546]

A study was conducted to observe and describe two reading instruction procedures stemming from two different theoretical influences. Two teachers, one skills- and one whole-language oriented, were selected on the basis of peer and administrator recommendation, among other qualifications. Their stated instructional base and theoretical orientations were measured using the Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP). Data were collected from video tapes and their transcriptions and from teacher journals. The results were analyzed using these questions as guides: On what unit of our language and linguistic system did the teacher focus the children's attention? What aspects of reading were emphasized? Was the reading material contingent on the student, teacher, or material? and, What attitude toward reading

specific text did the teacher encourage? Findings showed that in every category of observable data the teachers adhered closely to their theoretical model, and that, in diametric opposition to the instructional position of the skills teacher, the whole-language teacher focused children's attention on the largest unit of language suitable for the situation, encouraged the children to construct meaning sensible to them and their lives, permitted deviations from text in allowing miscues, involved children in planning, utilized library books and other texts, and encouraged children to "think about and feel" what they read.

Webb, Rodman B. and others. "The Basic Skills Instructional System: A Manual for Improving the Reading and Language Arts Skills of Low Achieving Students," *Florida Educational Research and Development Council, Inc. Research Bulletin*, v17 n2 Fall 1983, 43 p. [ED 246 020]

This manual presents a program of instruction, the Basic Skills Instructional System, which coordinates a number of teaching strategies into a single instructional system. Section 1 describes the organizational phase of the system: (1) teacher expectation; (2) resistance from low achieving students; (3) avoiding confrontations; (4) management of class time; and (5) effective teaching behaviors. In the second section, the development phase of instruction is described. During this phase, new concepts or basic skills are introduced to the class. Ways in which materials are presented to ensure that all students achieve a basic understanding of what is expected of them are outlined. Section 3 is devoted to a description of the seatwork phase of instruction; the aim of this phase is to consolidate learning and to increase students' proficiency in a specific, narrow area. The fourth section provides a description of effective practices in planning, assigning, and evaluating homework. In the final section, effective techniques are outlined for reviewing critical materials so that students can retain knowledge and consolidate learned skills.

Weinshank, Annette and others. "Learning from Experience to Improve Outcomes in Reading: A Case Study," *Research Series No. 149*, 1984, 17 p. [ED 249 471]

A study of the requisite processes for establishing diagnostic validity in reading was conducted in a seventh grade remedial reading classroom. The study's objectives were to (1) collect reliable diagnostic data on each student's performance in word recognition, oral reading, silent reading comprehension, and listening comprehension before and after the year's instruction; (2) document the teacher's instructional practices; (3) link outcomes with instruction; and (4) return diagnostic and outcome information to the teacher. On the basis of this information, the teacher made instructional adjustments for the next year's program in the area of word recognition and oral reading. The diagnostic results for the following year showed improvement in student achievement in those areas. The results also indicated that an unobtrusive system for establishing diagnostic validity can be successfully introduced into the classroom.



Weinshank, Annette B. and others. "Using Student Diagnostic Information to Establish an Empirical Data Base in Reading," *Research Series*, No. 162 1985, 75 p. [ED 262 373]

Enlarging upon the scope and agenda of earlier diagnostic research, a study was conducted to examine (1) teacher responses to receiving diagnostic information about some of their students, (2) effects on student achievement of teachers receiving both diagnostic information and diagnostic training, (3) diagnostic classifications that emerged from student performance, and (4) differential teacher effectiveness and instructional practices. Subjects included 10 experienced fifth-grade classroom teachers. A reading diagnostic battery, developed for the previous studies, was individually administered as a pretest to 186 of the 192 students in the teachers' classrooms. An experimental group of five teachers, randomly assigned, received four hours of training in diagnostic reliability. Before and after the training, all 10 teachers diagnosed one of four randomly assigned simulated cases of reading difficulty at two different times. Teachers were also interviewed three times. Results showed that teachers responded positively to the receipt of specific diagnostic information about their students, seeing it as useful for thinking about and making changes in their instructional practices. Students for whom teachers received diagnostic information did not show significantly improved achievement over students for whom no information was provided. (Appendices include the reading diagnostic battery and the interview questions.)

Wendler, David and others. "Comprehension Instruction of Award Winning Teachers, Masters Degree Teachers and Non-Masters Degree Teachers." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (38th, Tucson, AZ, November 29-December 3, 1988). [ED 302 838]

A study examined time spent on comprehension instruction by award winning, masters degree, and non-masters degree teachers. Observations of reading lessons were made under two conditions; not-cued and cued to teach "ideal" comprehension instruction lessons. Subjects were 36 public school third-, fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade teachers teaching in 20 different schools located in 12 different public school districts of a midwestern state. Results were analyzed using a one-between, one-within analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor with respect to percentage of time spent on prereading activities, comprehension instruction, and all comprehension activities. Results showed there were no significant differences among the award winning, masters degree, and non-masters degree teachers in the percentage of time spent on pre-reading activities or on comprehension instruction. Award winning teachers did allocate significantly more time than non-masters degree teachers to making assignments and to giving individual help with those assignments. When told that comprehension instruction was the purpose of observations, teachers did not increase the percentage of time for prereading activities or comprehension instruction. Instead they significantly increased the percentage of time spent asking assessment questions, listening to students' answers, and giving corrective feedback.

(Eight tables of data, 2 appendixes of categories and definitions of Reading Activities and Teacher Behaviors, and 38 references are attached.)

Wise, Beth S. and Judy C. Shaver. "Effectiveness Training for Elementary Teachers of Reading," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Reading Forum (4th, Sarasota, FL, December 8-10, 1983), 12 p. [ED 240 530]

A study investigated the effect of research-based instructional strategies on the reading achievement of students in grades two through five. Instructional process variables were assembled into a manual used to train 24 experimental teachers. The five categories of variables were (1) classroom environment, (2) lesson introduction, (3) lesson presentation, (4) questioning, and (5) feedback. The teachers were randomly assigned, stratified by grade level, to observed or unobserved experimental groups or to a control group. The experimental treatment was designed to enhance teachers' use of reading instructional strategies associated with reading achievement. Pupils were pretested and posttested with the McGraw-Hill Prescriptive Reading Inventory. Observational data gathered on teachers' use of instructional process variables were correlated with adjusted pupil reading achievement scores to specify the strengths of associations between the two. No significant differences were found among treatment and control groups, so data were examined for differences among teachers. Significant positive correlations for "more effective" teachers were found between pupils' total reading achievement and the instructional process variables of engaging students in learning and asking direct questions. Significant negative correlations were found between achievement and the instructional variables of asking rhetorical questions and giving nonacademic commands.